



BOUNDARY LAYER PREDICTION IN A COMPRESSOR CASCADE

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled "Boundary Layer Prediction in a Compressor Cascade" is being submitted by Mr. Izharul Islam in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of degree of Master of Science in Mechanical Engineering (Heat Power). This work has been carried out under my supervision and guidance and is not submitted anywhere, to the best of my knowledge, for the award of any degree or diploma.

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ABSTRACT

The growth of boundary layer on the blades of compressor cascades has been studied. Transition points on the blade surfaces were predicted using the well-known Michel's method. It is observed that the above method failed to predict the transition point on the blade pressure surface for 10° incidence at lower Reynolds numbers. Some other method may, therefore, be used to predict the transition point under the above circumstances. The value of H at transition is assumed to be equal to 1.4 in all calculations. Thwaites' method and Truckenbrodt's method are used to calculate the laminar and turbulent boundary layer growth respectively. Final results are presented in the form of C_D versus Reynolds numbers as suggested by Speidel & Scholz.

NOMENCLATURE

u, v	Components of velocity in boundary layer over the blade.
U	Potential flow velocity.
U_1, U_2	Potential flow velocities at inlet and exit of the cascade.
U_m	Mean potential velocity
ρ	Density
ν	Kinematic viscosity
p	pressure
τ_w	Wall shear
δ^*	Displacement thickness.
δ^{**}	Energy thickness
θ	Momentum thickness.
H, L	Shape factors associated with turbulent boundary layer solutions.
m	Shape factor associated with laminar boundary layer solutions.
x	Denotes position on blade.
c	Chord
y_{tA}	Half the profile thickness at the point of separation.
θ	Camber angle.
s	Space between two consecutive blades in the cascade.
β	Blade angle.
α	Flow angle.
α_m	Mean flow angle.
i	incidence
C_p	Coefficient of pressure. $\left(\frac{p - p_1}{\rho U^2} \right)$

γ	Shape factor for laminar region ($= \gamma \frac{u''}{u'}$)
C_f	Local skin coefficient of friction.
C_D	Coefficient of drag.
R	Body Reynolds number ($= \frac{U_\infty c}{\nu}$)
Re_x	Reynolds number based on chordwise position. ($= \frac{U_\infty x}{\nu}$)
Re_θ	Reynolds number based on momentum thickness. ($= \frac{U_\infty \theta}{\nu}$)

Coeffices

A	Indicates point of separation.
Ts	At trailing edge on suction side.
TP	At trailing edge on pressure side.
Te	At trailing edge.
t_γ	For transition.
i	For instability.
m	For mean.
1	For inlet.
2	For exit.
Corr.	For corrected.

INTRODUCTION

A detailed theoretical and experimental study of flow through cascade is required for a real progress in the solution of fluid mechanics problems of turbomachines. These studies play a prominent role in turbomachines of all types.

In two dimensional cascade flow, boundary layers develop on both the suction and pressure surfaces of the blade. These surface boundary layers then come together at the blade trailing edge and form the blade wake. As the wake moves down stream, a mixing takes place between the wake and free stream, and through viscous action, the flow becomes uniform at some distance behind the blade trailing edge.

Although in many practical problems, the blade surface boundary layer constitutes a small portion of the flow field, it plays a decisive part in the determination of the actual flow characteristics of the cascade. The effect of blade boundary development on cascade losses is obvious. Since the resulting wake formation contains a defect in total pressure. The surface boundary layer can also exert a strong influence on the surface pressure distribution and outlet angle characteristics of the blade. If the boundary layer is very thin, the pressure distribution obtained from potential flow calculations over the

original body will be a good approximation to the actual distribution. As the boundary layer thickens, however, the actual pressure distribution will depart from the potential flow determination. Under certain conditions, the boundary layer actually separates from the surface of the blade somewhere before the trailing edge. Under such circumstances the entire flow ^{pattern} about the cascade is altered by the displacement of fluid accompanying such separation, and the potential flow solution about the original profile loses its significance almost completely. Therefore it is obvious that only a theory of viscous flow through cascade can answer such important questions as to how the smallest possible loss coefficient and the best possible efficiency can be obtained, and by what mechanism stall effects the efficiency of a turbomachine.

This report is an extension of a work done by Murali Mohan, who dealt with the theoretical prediction of scale effect on an axial flow fan. Scale effect is encountered when the performances of two machines, with different sizes and having the same shape are compared. It is known that the geometrically similar machines are said to have Reynolds similarity when they have the same Reynolds Number. Thus the study of variation of properties with Reynolds number is equivalent to the study of the size effect on these properties.

The theoretical investigation of Reynolds number effects on the performance of an axial flow fan blading can be done by means of computations of the boundary layer growth for typical fan blade velocity distribution. Thereafter the momentum defect thickness at the trailing edge may be obtained to give values of the overall blade drag. The estimation of the point of transition from laminar flow to turbulent flow affects the boundary layer parameters at the trailing edge. This report uses Michel's criterion for locating the transition point on the blade surfaces. The results of overall blade drag are compared with those of Murali Mohan and also with the well known formulae given by Squire & Young for isolated aerofoils.

2. LITERATURE SURVEY

The analysis of viscous flow through cascade enables us to find out the aerodynamic loading of compressor blade sections. It is obvious that the separation of the boundary layer will result in an increase in the losses, causing a reduction in efficiency.

The boundary layer on a blade may consist of several regions starting with a laminar boundary layer. The laminar layer may separate from the surface either fully or partly. In the latter case it re-attaches after a region of separated flow. It may be mentioned that the turbulent boundary layer may also separate from the surface. Seyl (5) has listed the following factors which influence the state of the boundary layer

Pressure gradients.

Turbulence.

Reynolds Number.

Shock/boundary Layer interaction

Mach number

Surface roughness

Surface curvature

Temperature gradients

Suction or blowing

Condition at "start" of boundary layer

Passing wakes or unsteady flow

Three dimensional effects.

The first step is to calculate the velocity distribution round the blade for the range of inflow angles of interest. The well known Martenson method may be used for this

The next step is the calculation of the boundary layer parameters corresponding to these velocity distributions for the following parts :

- a) Laminar boundary layer
- b) Turbulent boundary layer
- c) Laminar separation point or transition point / re-
-gion and bubble size
- d) Turbulent boundary layer separation point
- e) Local heat transfer coefficients

Many earlier studies e.g. Schlichting (18), Schlichting & Scholz (19) etc. are based on the assumption that turbulent flow starts from the leading edge. In some experimental cases transition point is created by introducing a trip wire at the leading edge. However in actual practice there will be some region of laminar boundary layer on the blade surface.

The existence of this region has been confirmed recently by Walker (1), Horlock (21), has also mentioned the above reference and explains the importance of further study of the above mentioned aspect.

Walker (1) has studied the boundary layer development on the blades of the stator of a single stage axial

on the blade of the stator of a single stage axial flow compressor. There is a marked region of laminar boundary layer even for the high turbulence intensity caused due to the presence of the rotor. Bobb (43) has also studied the boundary layer development on the blades of a compressor cascade. He used 10C4 | 30C50 and 10C4 | 50C50 blades with stagger of 20° and aspect ratio of 2. The incidence was varied from -5° to 10° oil film technique for flow visualization was also adopted by him. He also confirmed that there was a laminar region on blade surfaces for various incidences. Quadir (16) has also measured boundary layer parameters on a low aspect ratio compressor cascade of high camber. His results confirm the view of Walker (1).

The complete viscous flow about cascade sections is generally considered to be described by the equations Navier-Stokes and the continuity equations. For two dimensional incompressible flow neglecting body forces, these equations are written as follows :

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} &= -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \nu \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right) \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} &= -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \nu \left(\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} \right) \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} (2.1)$$

The last equation represents the condition of continuity. The Euler equations for non-viscous fluids can be obtained by setting the kinematic viscosity equal

The solution of equation (2.1) has not been found in any but the simple cases of laminar flow. A solution for the flow through an arbitrary cascade is not feasible at the present time. However, when the predominant viscous efforts are confined to the boundary regions, a simplifying approximation is possible. By considering relative magnitudes (within the boundary layer) of the terms appearing in equations (2.1) that system of equations can be reduced to the following :

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} &= -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \nu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{--- (2.2)}$$

The boundary layer is assumed sufficiently thin and the curvature of the surface sufficiently small that the pressure gradient normal to the surface is negligible within the boundary layer can be determined from the potential flow outside the boundary layer. Equations (2.2) represent a significant simplification of equations (2.1) and have proved reliable in many flow problems. Unfortunately, these equations, also, are very difficult to solve in most cases of practical interest.

A decisive simplification in approach was made by Von Kármán, who integrated the first of the equations

(2.2) with respect to y and thus replaced the boundary layer equation with an integral condition that can be written in the following form :

$$\frac{\tau_w}{\rho U^2} = \frac{d\theta}{dx} + \frac{\theta}{U} (2+H) \frac{dU}{dx} \dots\dots (2.3)$$

where U is the velocity at the outer edge of the boundary layer and τ_w is the surface shear stress. In this manner, the boundary layer equations are required to be satisfied only in the mean instead of at each point along normal to the surface in the boundary layer region. Equation (2.3) has provided the basic equation for most of the general boundary layer investigations.

Many theories have been developed from equation (2.3) for approximately solving the boundary layer problem with pressure gradient for both laminar and turbulent flows. These theories although not completely successful, provide some orderly means of attacking the problem for either the laminar or the turbulent layer.

2.1 Laminar Boundary Layer

There are many methods of calculating the laminar boundary layer parameters such as Thwaites (11) , Walz (11) , Lopitsianskii's (11) etc. All the methods have similar expressions for finding out the growth of momentum thickness except the numerical constants. It is interesting to note that the predicted

boundary layer momentum thickness is very close to the experimental values as concluded by many investigators like Walker (1), Bobb (43), Quadir (16) etc. Bobb (43) has used Walz method, whereas Walker (1) and Quadir (16) have used Thwaite's method. The description of Thwaite's method is therefore necessary for the completeness of the problem, which is given below :

Assuming that the velocity profile in the two dimensional laminar boundary layer may be represented by a single parameter m , the boundary layer momentum integral equation (2.3) reduces to the form

$$\frac{U}{\nu} \frac{d(\theta^2)}{dx} = F(m) \quad (2.4)$$

where m is defined as

$$m = \frac{-\theta^2}{\nu} \frac{dU}{dx} \quad (2.5)$$

Thwaite¹ examined all known exact solutions and accurate computations of the laminar boundary layer and found that in no case did the function $F(m)$ depart far from the straight line

$$F(m) = 0.45 + 6m \quad (2.6)$$

Replacing $F(m)$ by this linear relation, equation (2.4) leads to an explicit relation for the boundary layer

Momentum thickness in terms of the surface velocity distribution :

$$\frac{\theta^2}{\nu} = \frac{0.45}{U^6} \int_0^x U^5 dx \quad (2.7)$$

For finding out the other parameters of the laminar boundary layer one may use the table provided by Twaites for the purpose. The above equation may be written in non dimensional form as

$$\left(\frac{\theta}{c} \right)^2 \left(\frac{U_m c}{\nu} \right) = \frac{0.45}{(U/U_m)^6} \int_0^{x/c} \left(\frac{U}{U_m} \right)^5 d\left(\frac{x}{c} \right) \quad (2.8)$$

2.2 Laminar separation point or transition region / point and bubble size

It is particularly important to determine the "point" and process by which the boundary layer changes from a laminar to a turbulent state as this can have a significant effect on the aerodynamic performance of the cascade and a local heat transfer rates.

The research on transition process is in such a state that we can still present only a rather feeble progress report. White (27) has remarked that the final report on transition, indeed, may never be handed in. Historically evidence has not been gathered in cumulative fashion, the bulk of opinion about transition swaying drastically from one misconception to another. The Raleigh inviscid theories threw up a smoke screen about the real culprit : resistive infinitesimal instability. Then, when the two dimensional Tollmien - Schlichting waves were finally predicted, researchers ignored them because the overwhelming bulk of experiments pointed clearly to transition as a three dimensional "explosion" into turbulence. Years later, when Schubauer and Skramstad (6) and also Liepmann (28) documented the Tollmien-Schlichting waves, the rush of opinion to embrace the two dimensional cause was so great that Liepmann's clear indication of spanwise fluctuations was entirely ignored. A decade later, Simons (25) accidentally noticed sporadic turbulent spots on shallow running water; two dimensionality was abandoned and suddenly, as Morkovin (26) wryly notes, "everyone was seeing spots". It was another decade before Klebanoff, Tidstrom, and Sargent (24) clarified the essential intermediate process involving longitudinal vorticity & spanwise energy exchange. Added to this is the annoying unit Reynolds number effect , by which transition process differ among the vario-

for the initial disturbance spectrum (free stream turbulence, radiated noise, surface roughness) on the actual paths toward turbulence. The complexities of these parameters and their interactions continue to discharge our hopes for a definitive picture of the transition process.

Most methods of predicting transition point have concentrated on the low speed, smooth wall, and quiet flow with variable pressure gradients such as an aerofoil in free flight. The first such method, due to Schlichting and Ulrich (29) is simple and still very popular. In this method two positions are important ;

- 1) The point of instability x_i , where unstable Tollmien Schlichting waves first appear and
- 2) The ultimate transition point x_{tr} , when the flow becomes the fully turbulent.

One computes x_i from laminar instability theory and then computes the remaining distance $(x_{tr} - x_i)$ from a correlation due to Granveill (9). White (27) has given an empirical formulae for the above correlation as

$$Re_\theta(x_{tr}) \approx Re_\theta(x_i) + 450 + 400 e^{60\lambda_m} \quad (2.9)$$

where

$$\lambda_m = \frac{1}{x_{tr} - x_i} \int_{x_i}^{x_{tr}} \lambda(x) dx. \quad (2.10)$$

It may be noted that for a favourable pressure gradient (λ_m) the last term of equation (2.9) is very large and therefore the transition point

is far down stream. This is expected due to the high stability of the favourable profiles. Conversely in a separating flow ($\lambda_m \approx -0.1$) the last term of equation (2.9) is negligible which shows that x_{tr} is very close to x_1 .

Dunham (30) has attempted to formulate a basis for prediction of boundary layer transition on turbomachinery blades. He used the data of Evans (31), Turner (32), Apostolopoulos (33), Wilson & Pope (34), Dunham & Edwards (35), Pollard & Costelow (36) and Walker (37). He has mentioned that two distinct forms of transitions have been commonly observed :

- a) "Natural Transition": a gradual increase in the proportion of the flow, which is turbulent at any instant (Intermittancy) from 0 to 1 ; and
- b) "Bubble transition": A laminar separation bubble followed by reattachment as a turbulent boundary layer

Dunham (30) in his paper has mentioned about the work of Hall & Gibbings (44) also, who has reviewed the various methods of predicting transition. Dunham has also summarized the work of Horton (48) which gives a semi empirical theory for the growth and bursting of laminar separation bubbles. He goes on to say:

" the general conclusion is unavoidable that the present prediction methods remain uncertain and that many careful experiments are

needed if reliable methods are to be established.

White (27) has recommended the use of Michel's method of predicting transition until a demonstrably more rigorous procedure arrives. He has given an empirical expression for Michel's data (using curve-fitting technique) as

$$R_{eq} \approx 2.9 R_{ex}^{0.4} \quad (2.11)$$

Murali Mohan (30) has predicted the points of transition on the basis of the instability of the laminar boundary layer. For this the local Reynolds number based on the displacement thickness i.e. $\frac{U\delta^*}{\nu}$ is evaluated along the chord of the blade, which is increasing in nature as the displacement thickness increases towards trailing edge. But as the universal trend in the relation between $(\frac{U\delta^*}{\nu})_{critical}$ and the shape factor λ exists, which is got from the stability consideration of the boundary layer equations. So for every point along the blade chord the value of $(\frac{U\delta^*}{\nu})_{critical}$ is calculated corresponding to the local value of shape factor. The flow is said to be stable if the local value of $\frac{U\delta^*}{\nu}$ is less than the critical value obtained by above method. Proceeding along the laminar boundary layer in the down stream direction from the forward stagnation point at an assumed constant body Reynolds

in pressure. But on the other the boundary layer is thin and consequently the local Reynolds number $\frac{U\delta^*}{\nu}$ is small. Therefore the boundary layer is stable. As going on further downstream, the pressure is found to be decreasing at lower lower rate, till there is pressure increase behind the point of minimum pressure. Hence the local limit of stability $(\frac{U\delta^*}{\nu})_{\text{critical}}$ decreases continuously downstream, where as the local Reynolds number $\frac{U\delta^*}{\nu}$ increases continuously. Finally a point is reached where

$$\frac{U\delta^*}{\nu} = (\frac{U\delta^*}{\nu})_{\text{critical}} \quad \text{-----} (2.12)$$

This point is known as point of instability. From this point onwards the boundary layer is unstable. Its position is evidently a function of the Reynolds number $\frac{U_m c}{\nu}$ since it (Reynolds number) influences the local boundary layer thickness. Murali Mohan (20) has taken this very point of instability as the point of transition. While the point of transition lies downstream of the point of instability. He has also mentioned that the distance of separation between the theoretical point of instability and the experimental point of transition varies from case to case.

Walker (1) also treated the phenomenon of transition not as an instantaneous one but as a region. He developed a new scheme of predicting transition which better described the observed behaviour at low Reynolds numbers and higher adverse pressure gradients

found in the compressor. He divided the transition process in two regions:

- 1) An "instability region", defined as extending from the point of neutral stability of the laminar boundary layer to small two-dimensional disturbances, to the point at which localised regions of turbulent flow first appear; and
- 2) A "transition region", in which the intermittency of turbulence increases from zero to one due to the spreading of localised spots of turbulent flow.

The point of neutral stability to small two-dimensional disturbances in the laminar boundary layer was determined from the curve of critical boundary layer Reynolds number $Re_{\theta \text{ crit.}}$ against pressure gradient parameter K , given by Rosenhead (11) as the mean of calculations by a number of workers. The end of the instability region, which will be called transition point, was inferred from the decrease in boundary layer shape factor H , the increase in skin friction and noise level which result from the onset of the turbulent mixing. The error in locating this point is thought to have been less than 2% of chord in most cases. The end of the transition region, where the boundary layer flow became continuously turbulent, was indicated by the stabilisation of shape factor, skin friction and noise level to values characteristic of turbulent

instability and transition regions are about 40% and 20% of the chord respectively.

2.3. Turbulent Boundary Layer

Once the transition point is estimated the next step is to calculate the turbulent boundary layer growth. There are many methods of computing the incompressible two-dimensional turbulent boundary layer. In general such analysis can be divided into two types;

- 1) Integral methods arranged across the boundary layer, and
2. Finite difference, or differential methods which attempt to solve the full partial differential equations of the boundary layer.

In 1968 a conference was held at Stanford which provided a splendid source of well-purified boundary layer data {Coles & Hirst (38)} for a direct check on the accuracy of the various methods. One of the conclusions of the conference was that in no way the integral methods were inferior to the differential methods for the cases they considered. Considering the time of computation involved and the foregoing conclusion many earlier researchers have used integral methods for the purpose.

Smith (39) has used five methods of predicting

the incompressible, two-dimensional turbulent boundary layer to flow conditions considered to occur over the suction surface of turbomachine blades. He has also assessed the agreement between the separation criteria and boundary layer characteristics. The methods considered were those due to Buri (18),* Truckenbrodt (18)*, Stratford (40), Maskell (41) and Spence (42)*. He concluded that:

- 1) All of the criteria could be brought into tolerable agreement provided that value of ' m ' = 0.04 was used for Buri's criteria, and that for Truckenbrodt and Spence's methods the position of separation was determined by the condition that local skin friction coefficient is zero. It was additionally necessary in the methods of Maskell, Truckenbrodt and Spence for the calculation of the shape parameters to be started with a value of ' H ' as 1.4.
- 2) All of the criteria except Spence's were sensitive to Reynolds number and showed that an increase in Reynolds number delays separation.
- 3) Stratford's method was extremely easy to apply, was the simplest of the five and predicted the lowest pressure rise to separation.

* Book reference is given.

4) To assist in the design of blade profiles

envelops of suction surface velocity distribution have been constructed to give separation at the trailing edge; these are considered to be conservatively based.

Pollard & Gostelow (36) also measured the boundary layer development on a 6 inch chord blade under the conditions of leading edge roughness, and obtained fair success in predicting the boundary layer growth using the simple calculation methods derived by Truckenbrodt.

Horlock (22) has discussed that the methods of calculating turbulent boundary layer will give adequate prediction of the layer over a substantial area of the blade surfaces, if turbulent flow develops quickly near the leading edges, as is the case in most high speed axial flow compressors. He has further mentioned that the prospects of accurate calculations of turbulent separation under the complex conditions existing in compressors seem somewhat remote.

The results of Bobb (43) and Quedir (16) also show that for moderate loading Truckenbrodt's method predicts momentum thickness growth satisfactorily except near the trailing edge.

The method due to Truckenbrodt is explained below.

TRUCKENBRODT METHOD

In calculating the momentum thickness Truckenbrodt followed a different path than followed by others i.e. he made use of the energy integral equation for obtaining the expression of turbulent boundary layer ^{momentum} thickness. The energy integral equation is :

$$\frac{d}{dx}(U^3 \delta^{**}) = 2\nu \int_0^{\infty} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)^2 dy \quad (2.13)$$

where δ^{**} denotes the energy thickness, defined as

$$\delta^{**} = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{u}{U} \left[1 - \left(\frac{u}{U}\right)^2\right] dy \quad (2.14)$$

Truckenbrodt found, after evaluating with different experimental data, that the following expression holds good for the turbulent boundary layer.

$$\delta \left(\frac{U_0}{\nu}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}} = \frac{C_1 + A \int_{x_{tr}}^x U^{3+2/n} dx}{U^{3+2/n}} \quad (2.15)$$

where the value of 'n' can be taken as 4 for small Reynolds number and 6 for large Reynolds number 'C₁' is a constant which takes into account the laminar portion of the boundary layer; 'A' is also a constant which can be taken as 0.0076 and x_{tr} is the point of transition..

In cases when the boundary layer does not separate the calculation of the momentum thickness $\bar{H}(x)$ along the contour of the body essentially completes the calculations of the turbulent boundary layer. But since the turbulent boundary layer separation is always expected at large Reynolds number and at greater incidences, so to find the position of the separation along the contour, Tuckerbrott introduced another new shape factor L defined as :

$$L = \int_{\bar{H}=\bar{H}_0}^{\bar{H}} \frac{d\bar{H}}{(\bar{H}-1)\bar{H}} \quad (2.16)$$

where $H = \delta^*/\theta$ and $\bar{H} = \delta^{**}/\theta$. The lower limit of integration in equation (2.16) has been so chosen as to make $L = 0$, corresponds to the case of zero pressure gradient (flat plates) i.e. $\bar{H} = \bar{H}_0 \approx 1.73$ and $H_0 = 1.4$.

Finally he got the result for L as below:

$$L = \frac{\xi_{tr}}{\xi} L_{tr} + \ln \frac{U(\xi)}{U_{tr}} + \int_{\xi_{tr}}^{\xi} \left[b(\xi) - \ln \frac{U(\xi)}{U_{tr}} \right] d\xi \quad (2.17)$$

He expressed 'b' in terms of momentum thickness with the following approximation

$$b = 0.07 \log_{10} \left(\frac{U\theta}{\nu} \right) - 0.23 \quad (2.18)$$

and is defined as

$$\xi = \left[C_1^* + \frac{A}{R^{1/n}} \int_{x_{tr}/c}^{x/c} (U/U_m)^{3+2/n} d(x/c) \right]^m \quad (2.19)$$

$$\text{where } C_1^* = \frac{C_1 \nu^{1/n}}{(c U_m)^{1+1/n}}$$

R is the body Reynolds number ($= \frac{U_m c}{\nu}$), the suffix 'tr' indicates the transition point, and the values of m and n are 4 and 6 respectively. Separation occurs for $L = -0.13$ to -0.18 , which correspond to $H = 1.8$ to 2.4 .

He also assumed that shape factor (H) has little effect on the growth of the momentum thickness and was taken as being constant and equal to 1.4.

2.4. Drag Coefficient

Speidel & Scholz (17) have given an expression for finding out the loss coefficient, deflection coefficient, the drag coefficient etc. for a two-dimensional cascade. As discussed earlier, the loss coefficient can be obtained from viscous flow theory only. The drag coefficient is related in terms of loss coefficient as { Vasandani (23) }

$$C_D = \frac{S}{C} \zeta_v \sin^3 \beta_\infty \quad (2.20)$$

where the loss coefficient ζ_v is obtained from:

$$\zeta_v = \frac{2\theta^2}{\sin^2 \beta_{2 \text{ corr}}} \quad (2.21)$$

Here θ denotes the dimensionless momentum thickness which is obtained from the momentum thicknesses at the trailing edge of the blade. $\beta_{2 \text{ corr}}$ is the angle of flow at outlet in the influence of boundary layers on the potential flow potential flow, which has been

It is worth mentioning that the losses associated with a cascade consist of losses in the unseparated boundary layer, of additional losses due to separation (if any), and of losses due to turbulent mixing in the wake.

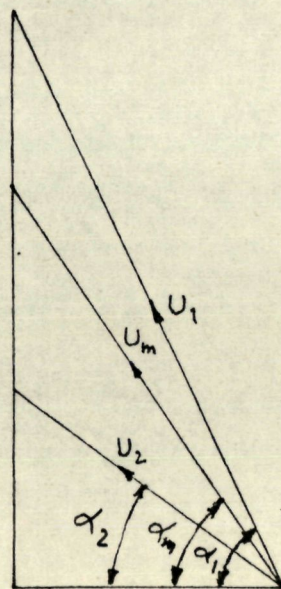
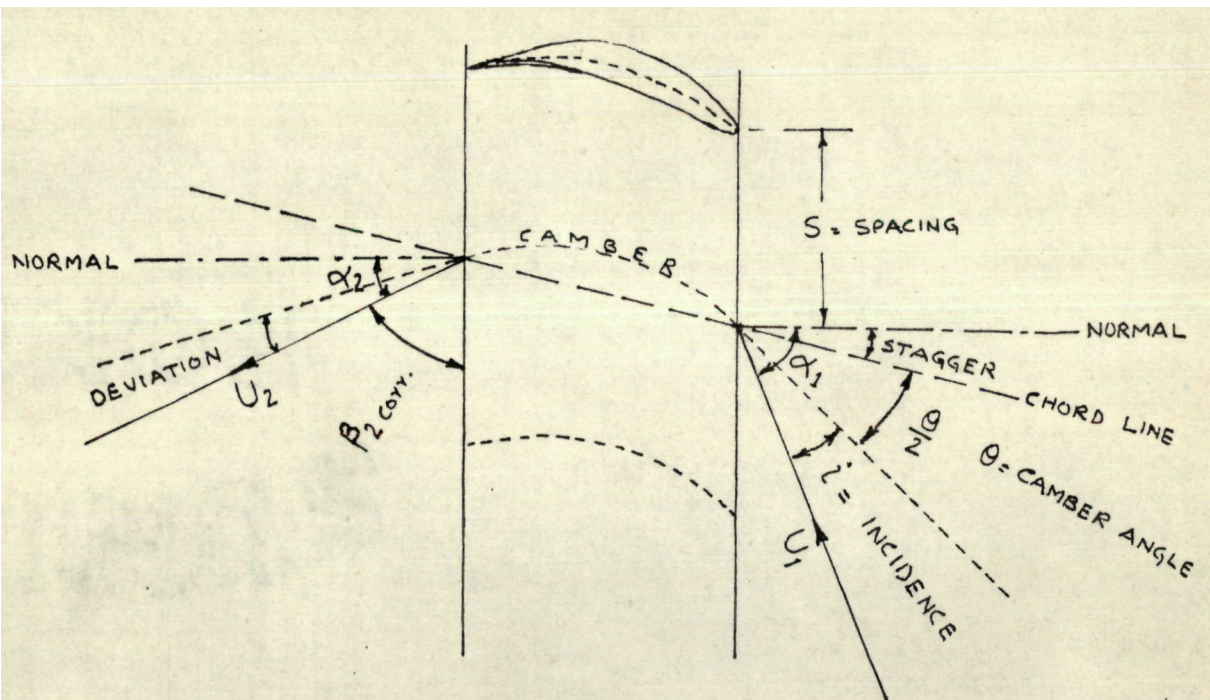
When there is no separation on the blades, the dimensionless momentum thickness is given by

$$\theta = \frac{\theta_{TS} + \theta_{TP} + \theta_A}{S \sin \beta_2 \cos \alpha} \quad (2.22)$$

where θ_A is an additional momentum thickness due to additional loss caused by separation (hence for unseparated flow $\theta_A = 0$) and is given by Speidel & Scholz (17) as

$$\theta_A = \frac{1}{2} y_{tA} \left\{ (U_A/U_2)^2 - 0.9 \right\} \quad (2.23)$$

y_{tA} means half the profile thickness at the point of separation and U_A the potential flow velocity at the point of separation A. The criterion for the point of separation has already been discussed earlier.



CASCADE FLOW DIAGRAM

As discussed in the earlier chapter, the first step in the boundary layer computation is the calculation of the velocity distribution around the blade for the range of inflow angles of interest. The present study takes the velocity distribution as found out experimentally for a cascade test conducted at the University of Edinburgh as reported by Murali Mohan (20). For this, experimental plots of non-dimensional pressure coefficient C_{p1} against the non-dimensional chordwise position along the blade, x/c for the incidences to be considered are used. The pressure plots are converted into non-dimensional velocity plots using the Bernoulli's equation. The details of cascade are as follows:

Blade Profile : 10 C 4

(Circular arc camber)

Camber angle, $\theta = 30^\circ$

Stagger = 37°

Blade inlet angle, $\beta_1 = 52^\circ$

Blade exit angle, $\beta_2 = 22^\circ$

Space chord ratio, $s/c = 0.75$

Aspect ratio , $h/c = 2.0$

The incidences that are considered are

(i) $i = 10^\circ$

(ii) $i = -2^\circ$

For incidence $i = 10^\circ$

α_1 = flow angle at entry to the cascade = 62°

α_2 = flow angle at exit to the cascade = 29.75°

For incidence $i = -2^\circ$

α_1 = flow angle at entry to the cascade = 50°

α_2 = flow angle at exit to the cascade = 26.5°

Let the flow angle corresponding to the cascade mean flow be α_m .

$$\text{Since } \tan \alpha_m = \frac{1}{2} (\tan \alpha_1 + \tan \alpha_2)$$

therefore for $i = 10$, $\alpha_m = 50^\circ 48'$

for $i = -2$, $\alpha_m = 40^\circ 12'$

The main problem in the present study is the estimation of the momentum thickness on blade surfaces at the trailing edge (as momentum thickness is a measure of the losses in the flow). The entire computation work is carried out on IBM 1130 computer installed at A.M.U. computer centre. Computer programs were developed for

- (a) inter-polation of C_{p1} values at intermediate points of calculation using cubic spline method. This program also gives the values of first derivatives at the points considered,
- (b) the Thwaites method for laminar boundary layer calculation,
- (c) transition point estimation using Michel's criterion,

The results obtained are compared with those of Marali Mohan (20) and also with the results obtained by Squire & Young method.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

First of all the non-dimensional pressure plots are converted into non-dimensional velocity plots. If U is the potential velocity at any chord position x/c where the coefficient of pressure is C_{p1} and U_1 the free stream velocity for upstream of a cascade, then the following relation is valid.

$$\left(\frac{U}{U_1} \right)^2 = 1 - C_{p1} \quad (4.1)$$

$$\text{Now } \left(\frac{U}{U_m} \right) = \frac{U}{U_1} \cdot \frac{U}{U_m} \quad (4.2)$$

where U_m is the vector mean velocity through the cascade. Further from continuity equation

$$U_1 \cos \alpha_1 = U_m \cos \alpha_m \quad (4.3)$$

Therefore

$$\frac{U}{U_m} = (1 - C_{p1})^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\cos \alpha_m}{\cos \alpha_1} \quad (4.4)$$

Figure 1 gives two-dimensional static pressure distribution for incidences of 10° and -2° in terms of C_{p1} against x/c . Equation (4.4) along with the data obtained from figure -1 gives us the non-dimensional velocity plots as shown in figure . It is found that in general for all the four cases the velocity plots are smooth in nature. Further the flow is accelerated

because of the greater rate of change of velocity.

The values of the coefficient of pressure for different values x/c are interpolated by putting a cubic spline for the data available from the experimental plots. at equal interval. As already mentioned a computer programme was developed for the above method. The cubic spline method also gives the first derivative at any point of consideration. It may be mentioned that for solving the simultaneous algebraic equation as required in the cubic spline method, The end condition are to be specified. Pennington (4) has specified that third derivative are continuous at the end point of the curve. The present study tried these boundary conditions but the results obtained were not satisfactory. The end conditions were then modified in order to get smooth results of the first derivatives at the point of interest. The second derivatives at the end points are considered to be zero in the modified programme. These end conditions necessarily mean that the spline is hinged freely at the end points. The graph obtained by this method for the coefficient of pressure is given in figure

After finding out the velocity distribution the boundary layer calculation was started in steps as mentioned in chapter 3. The experimental results are under natural transition and therefore the turbulent boundary layer calculation right from the leading edge is not carried out. Walker (1) has

exist on turbomachine blading inspite of the high level of disturbance from the wakes of upstream blade rows. The earlier assumption that the boundary layer in turbomachinery would be almost universally turbulent, probably originates largely from observations of transition on flat plates. It is to be noted that for flat plates, for free stream turbulence levels of about 2%, the onset of turbulent flow becomes almost coincident with the calculated point of laminar instability. For this reason, many theoretical analyses of cascade performance have assumed the turbulent flow to originate at the blade leading edge.

Thwaites method of laminar boundary layer calculations was programmed for IBM 1130 computer and the computed results are shown in figures (3A) (3B) (3C) (3D). As is obvious the momentum loss should increase along the chord which is being clearly shown in the above figures. The momentum loss on the suction side should be naturally more than on the pressure side, because of the greater adverse pressure gradient on the former. Further more the losses should increase when the incidence is increased. These are indicated by the $(\frac{\theta}{c}) R^{1/2}$ vs. α/c plots.

While discussing the results for finding out the transition point on the blade surfaces, it is worth mentioning the results on an isolated aerofoil as explained by Schlichting (18). He has deduced the rule on a rough basis that the point of transition almost coincides with the point of minimum pressure of the potential flow in the range of Reynolds numbers from 10^6 to 10^7 . At very large Reynolds numbers the point of transition may lie a short distance in front of that position and it may move a considerable distance behind it at small Reynolds numbers particularly when the pressure gradient whether +ve or -ve, is small. Further it is observed that the point of transition always lies in front of the point of laminar separation, irrespective of the values of the Reynolds numbers. Thus the rule may be established that the point of transition lies behind the point of minimum pressure but in front of a point of laminar separation, at all except very large Reynolds numbers.

However the situation in the case for flow through cascades appears to be different than the above mentioned results. In the present study the following typical results are presented for a Reynolds number of 10^5 .

Incidence = 10° , suction side

Point of minimum pressure = 0.035

The effect of Reynolds numbers on pressure distribution may be prominent for the lower values. The present study as well as that of Murali Mohan (20) does not take this variation because of the absence of experimental pressure plots. The position of the laminar separation point will therefore not vary with the variation of Reynolds numbers. This may be explained as

$$m = -\frac{\theta^2}{\nu} \frac{dU}{dx}$$

$$\text{or } m = -\left(\frac{\theta}{c}\right)^2 \frac{U_{\infty} c}{\nu} \frac{d(U/U_{\infty})}{d(x/c)} \quad (4.5)$$

In the above expression the term $\left(\frac{\theta}{\nu}\right)^2 \frac{U_{\infty} c}{\nu}$ is purely a function of velocity distribution as given in (2.8). Hence the pressure gradient parameter m is also a function of velocity distribution only. The corresponding value of the chord for $m = -0.082$ is therefore independent of Reynolds number $\left(\frac{U_{\infty} c}{\nu}\right)$.

The point of transition as given by Michell's criterion moves towards the leading edge when Reynolds number is increased, as is expected. For the case, illustrated above, it is interesting to note that the point of transition almost coincides with point of laminar separation at Reynolds number 10^7 . For values of Reynolds numbers greater than 10^7 the transition points were in front of a laminar separation point. The variation of transition point

These
 in figure (5 A) that ^{is an} absence of predicted
 points of transition for the pressure side for
 Reynolds number $\leq 10^6$. Under such a Reynolds number
 range the boundary layer on pressure surface for 10°
 incidence remains laminar right upto the trailing edge.
 This conclusion is based on the results given by the
 Michel's criterion. The method of Michel is to plot Re_θ
 against Re_x along the surface until the curve passes
 a critical point at which transition is assumed to occur,
 the position of the critical point being found from a
 plot of Re_θ tr against Re_x tr of previous
 experimental results. The present study avoids the
 above plot and instead uses equation (2.11).
 Hall & Gibbing (44) while discussing the method of
 Michel has pointed out the criticisms of Crabtree (45)
 and Smith & Gamberoni (46) about the low accuracy of
 Michel's method. It is of interest to note that the
 version of Michel's curve reproduced by Crabtree (45)
 is very close to a plot of Re_θ against Re_x for the
 zero pressure gradient boundary layer given by the
 Blasius solution, $Re_\theta = 0.664 Re_x^{0.5}$. Thus the point of
 transition has to be found from the intersection of
 two nearly parallel lines, which means that small
 errors in the calculation results in large error in
 the transition point prediction. The reason for the
 absence of the points of transition on pressure surface

for 10° incidence for Reynolds numbers $\leq 10^6$ may be given in the light of the above discussion.

After locating the point of transition the turbulent boundary layer was started using the well known simple quadrature method of S. Truckenbrodt. For finding out the integrals associated in the above method, first of all, trapezoidal rule of numerical integration was used. The momentum thickness distribution as predicted by the above method is plotted in figures (6A) (6B) (6C) (6D). The prediction of the shape factor ($H = \delta^*/\theta$) involves careful integration which was observed as at a later stage during calculation. As discussed earlier there is a correlation between H and L (another shape factor) which is given in the form of a graph. In order to check the correctness of the computer programme developed, calculations were performed for the known results given by Smith (39). While comparing the results, the momentum thickness variation was perfectly alright. However, there was discrepancy in the computed values of H with the results given by Smith (39). After investigation it was found out that the Trapezoidal numerical technique did not work satisfactorily in the above scheme. The integral equations were then converted into ordinary differential equations and a standard routine of Runge-Kutta-Gill method was employed for their solutions. With the introduction of the above

agreement with the results given by Smith (39).

Having established the accuracy and correctness of the developed programme, calculations were performed for the studies under consideration.

It may be mentioned that the initial value of factor H , was specified as 1.4. The corresponding value of L is zero. This is based on the recent observation carried out by Quadir (16) at I.I.Sc Bangalore. He has concluded that the value of shape factor for different incidence angles at the point of transition is almost equal to 1.4. This value of shape factor is also taken for turbulent boundary layer calculation on flat plates. The computed results are plotted in figure (7) for different Reynolds number.

Generally the turbulent boundary layer is considered to separate from the surfaces at values of H between 1.8 to 2.4. Truckenbrodt has given the limiting values of L between -0.13 to -0.18. These values are based on many earlier experiments carried out under two-dimensional conditions. The results for cascade flows are lacking in literature. However Quadir (16) while measuring the boundary layer development on blade surfaces has come across the turbulent boundary layer separation towards the trailing edge at moderate blade loading. He has further concluded that the value of H as high as 4.3 was observed at the point of separation. This was confirmed from ^{-1/2} nature of

velocity profiles as well as with the help of chicken down used for flow visualization technique. In the present study the value of L at separation was therefore, taken to be -0.20 in order to accommodate higher value of the shape factor H . Based on this criterion it was observed that the boundary layer was fully attached for lower Reynolds numbers. As the Reynolds number increases the existence of boundary layer separation is predicted. For further increase of Reynolds number the turbulent boundary layer separation disappears from the scene. In order to understand a clear picture for the prediction of turbulent boundary layer separation the variation of the shape factor L against chord wise position for different Reynolds numbers was plotted ^{for 10° incidence on suction surface} as shown in figure (7) It is apparent that L decreases towards the trailing edge. Further in the above figure the curve for lower Reynolds number is more steep than that for higher Reynolds number. It may be noted from the curve drawn that the L variation approached or intersected the line marked for separation for only three Reynolds numbers whereas the variation for other Reynolds number were well above the line. This was the reason that the turbulent boundary layer separation points were not predicted during the computation.

Smith (39) has pointed out the importance of the knowledge of local coefficient of skin friction


mainly due to two reasons. Firstly it is a measure of the velocity gradient at the surface and therefore the stability of the boundary layer and secondly to instigate blade temperature distributions which may be required in the stress analysis of turbine blades. The distribution of heat transfer coefficient is required which, using Reynolds analogy to Ludwig & Tillman the skin friction coefficient is given by

$$C_f = \frac{\tau_w}{\frac{1}{2} \rho U^2} = 0.246 e^{-1.561 H} Re_Q^{-0.268} \quad (4.6)$$

The point of separation may therefore be taken as that position where $C_f \approx 0$.

Figure () shows a comparison between the two criteria used for locating the point of separation based on the above arguments. It is clear from the figure that the criterion $L = -0.2$ indicates early separation for both the cases considered. However when incidence is -2° the differences between the location as predicted by the above two different criteria are less. Moreover the nature of the curves are smooth in both the cases.

The final aim of present study was to evaluate the coefficient of drag as suggested by Spaidel & Scholz (17). For this the momentum thicknesses at the trailing edge on the blade surfaces are

consideration are plotted in figures (6E) (). It may be noted that the rate of momentum thickness decrease is more at lower Reynolds number especially on the suction side. Further, on suction side the momentum thickness at trailing edge for 10° incidence is almost the same as that for -2° incidence particularly at lower Reynolds numbers. On pressure surface there is a considerable difference in the above result. It may also be observed that the momentum thickness at trailing edge on pressure surface at incidence -2° is more than that at incidence of 10° . The latter result is based on the fact that the boundary layer remained laminar for 10° incidence on the pressure surface, whereas the boundary layer underwent transition at 21.5 percent of chord for -2° incidence. The former result as discussed above was a bit surprising. It was therefore thought to present the following results in a tabular form to find out the reasons for almost the same momentum thicknesses at the trailing edge for 10° and -2° incidences on the suction surface. At a Reynolds number of 10^4 the point of transition for 10° incidence was at 50 percent chord whereas for -2° incidence transition occurred at 83.5 percent chord. At first sight it may appear that $\left(\frac{\theta}{C} \right)$ at trailing edge for 10° incidence would be much greater than that for -2° incidence. From table it appears that

there is not much difference in values of θ/C at trailing edge for both the incidences, the numerical values being 0.01825 and 0.0165. This may be attributed to the fact that the value of (θ/C) at transition for -2° incidences was much greater than (θ/C) at transition, values for 10° incidence though transition occurred much earlier for 10° incidence. The results at higher Reynolds numbers indicated that there is some difference in the $(\theta/C)_{Te}$ value for the two cases of incidences.

Having discussed about the development of momentum thickness at trailing edge on the blade surfaces the last discussion would be about the results of the coefficient of drag calculated for different Reynolds numbers. These results are plotted in figure (9) along with the results computed by Murali Mohan (20). The values of C_D as obtained by Squire & Young, for isolated aerofoils, are also given in the same figure. Furthermore the experimental results of N.K.M.M. Swamy (47) as reported by Murali Mohan (20) are also plotted in the above figure. The comparison shows that the computed values of C_D based on the present study are lower than those of Murali Mohan (20) for all the Reynolds numbers. This is because of the fact that the transition was considered to occur much earlier than the position as predicted by Michel's criterion in the present study. Due to this the boundary layer growth at T.E. was more which resulted in higher C_D .

The coefficient of drag for 10° incidence would be higher than that for -2° incidence. However the results plotted for the above incidences are reverse in nature. The reason for this is that Michel's criterion did not predict the point of transition on the pressure surface for 10° incidence i.e. the boundary layer remain laminar upto the trailing edge for the Reynolds number upto 10^6 . The failure of Michel's criterion for the prediction of transition point under such circumstances has already been discussed on page no. . It is therefore apparent that the sum of $(\frac{\theta}{C})_{T.E.}$ on suction side and $(\frac{\theta}{C})_{T.E.}$ on pressure side for 10° incidence side was lower than that of -2° incidence. It may be mentioned here that $(\theta/C)_{T.E.}$ on suction side for 10° incidence is almost equal to $(\theta/C)_{S.E.}$ on the same surface for -2° incidence as discussed earlier. The nature of the curve therefore suggests that some other criterion should be used to predict transition on the pressure surfaces for cases under consideration. Under such circumstances the curve of C_D for 10° incidence would have represented higher values than those of -2° incidence. This scheme was not tried in the present study due to the limited time. It is worth mentioning here that the computed results based on the present study are in good agreement with the experimental results of K.M.M. Swamy (47). When we compare the present results with the results of Squire & Young that seems to be

It appears from figure (9) that when the turbulent boundary layer was separated from the surface, there was an increase in C_D as expected. Murali Mohan (20) has perhaps not shown this aspect in his figure.

Viscous flow through compressor cascades has been studied. For this, the experimental results of non-dimensional pressure coefficients for 10° and -2° incidence angles, as reported by Murali Mohan (20) are used as the main data. No artificial transition producing device was used. Laminar boundary layer growth is calculated using the well known Thwaites's method. Michel's criterion has been adopted for the prediction of transition point. It is observed that the above criterion fails to predict the transition point on pressure surface for 10° incidence at lower Reynolds numbers. This results in a lower momentum thickness at the blade trailing edge as compared to when the transition would have occurred at some point. The value of H at transition point is assumed to be 1.4. Turbulent boundary layer calculation is carried out using Truckenbrodt's method.

After predicting the boundary layer growth on the blade surface, Speidel and Scholz method of calculating the coefficient of drag is employed. A lower value of L ($= -0.2$) is specified for the turbulent boundary layer separation. This is based on some observations as reported by Quadir (16). The C_D for 10° is found to be less than that for -2° .

incidence. This is primarily due to the absence of transition on the pressure surface for 10° incidence. It is therefore concluded that some other method may be used to predict the transition point under the above circumstances. However the present results are much closer to the experimental results as shown for -2° incidence. On comparison with the results of Squire & Young (which is for isolated aerofoils) it is found that the present computed values of C_D are less as is expected.

The present work may be used to determine the profile losses in an axial flow turbomachine. The omission of the secondary losses and tip clearance losses, should not affect the nature of the loss vs variation with Reynolds number, as they are independent of Reynolds number.

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Table I. RESULTS IN BRIEF
(For Suction Side)

Blade No.	Angle of Incidence	Transition Point (x_t/c)	Momentum (θ/c) at Transition	Thickness at Transition	Momentum (θ/c) at Trailing Edge	Thickness at Trailing Edge
34	10° -2°	0.670	0.3165 B-1	0.4277 B-1	0.0546	0.0562
34	10° -2°	0.565	0.1159 B-1	0.1562 B-1	0.0250	0.0252
35	10° -2°	0.500	0.7106 B-2	0.9909 B-2	0.0182	0.0185
35	10° -2°	0.340	0.2170 B-2	0.3445 B-2	0.0096	0.0095
36	10° -2°	0.260	0.1071 B-2	0.2178 B-2	0.0077	0.0065
36	10° -2°	0.160	0.3704 B-3	0.7328 B-3	0.0055	0.0040
37	10° -2°	0.125	0.2161 B-3	0.4487 B-3	0.0049	0.0035
37	10° -2°	0.095	0.7191 B-4	0.1317 B-3	0.0038	0.0034
38	10° -2°	0.080	0.4219 B-4	0.7489 B-4	0.0035	0.0035
38	10° -2°	0.060	0.0990	0.2048 B-4	0.0027	0.0022
39	10° -2°	0.050	0.070	0.8648 B-5	0.0025	0.0020

Table II. RESULTS IN BHSF
(For Pressure Side)

Yield Number	Angle of Incidence	Transition Point (x_{tr}/c)	Momentum (e/c) at Transition	Thickness at Transition	Momentum (e/c) at Trailing Ed	Thickness at Trailing Ed
1 24	10° -2°	---	0.1800 B-1	0.1513 B-1	0.0210	0.0295
5 24	10° -2°	---	0.8051 B-2	0.6765 B-2	0.0093	0.0132
1 35	10° -2°	---	0.5693 B-2	0.4783 B-2	0.0065	0.0092
5 35	10° -2°	---	0.2546 B-2	0.2139 B-2	0.0030	0.0043
1 36	10° -2°	---	0.1803 B-2	0.2530 B-2	0.0022	0.0034
5 36	10° -2°	---	0.8051 B-3	0.7223 B-3	0.0012	0.0025
1 37	10° -2°	---	0.5693 B-3	0.4214 B-3	0.0010	0.0022
5 37	10° -2°	0.500	0.2144 B-3	0.1242 B-3	0.0010	0.0019
1 38	10° -2°	0.385	0.1258 B-3	0.7508 B-4	0.0009	0.0017
5 38	10° -2°	0.170	0.3481 B-4	0.2165 B-4	0.0008	0.0015
1 39	10° -2°	0.135	0.2101 B-4	0.1375 B-4	0.0008	0.0013

INCIDENCE = 10

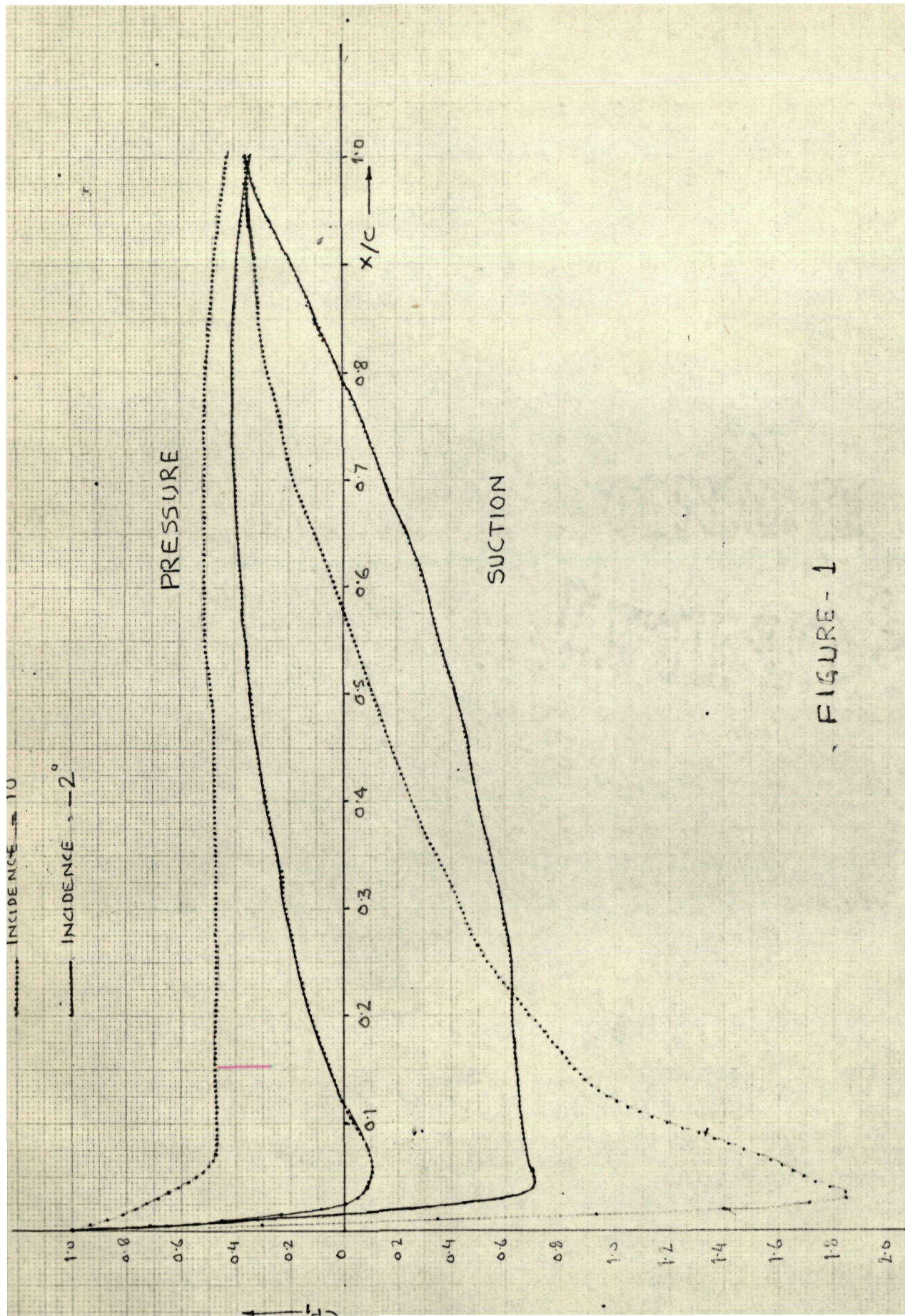
INCIDENCE = 2°

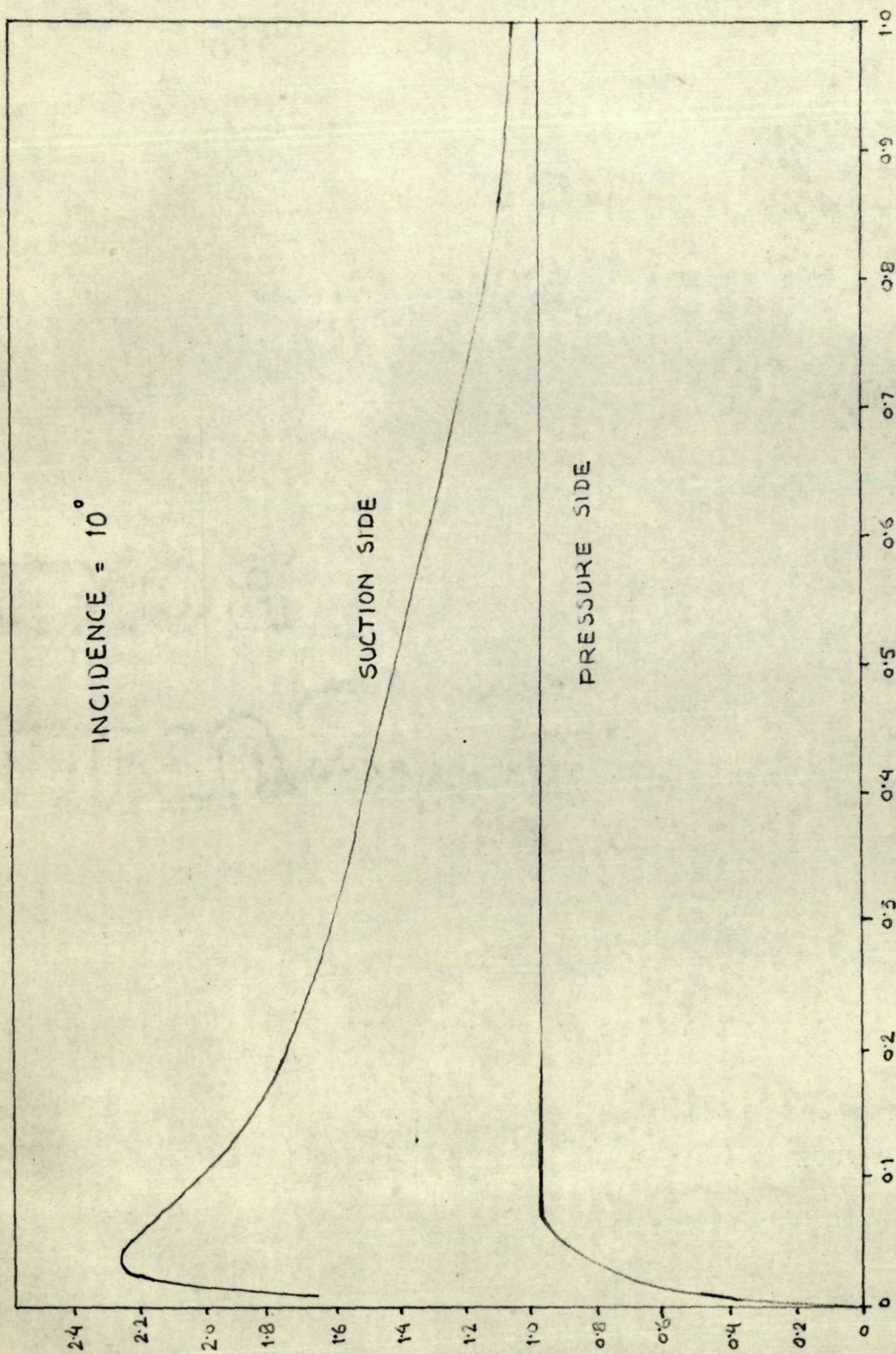
PRESSURE

SUCTION

x/c

FIGURE-1





x/c
FIGURE - 1(A)

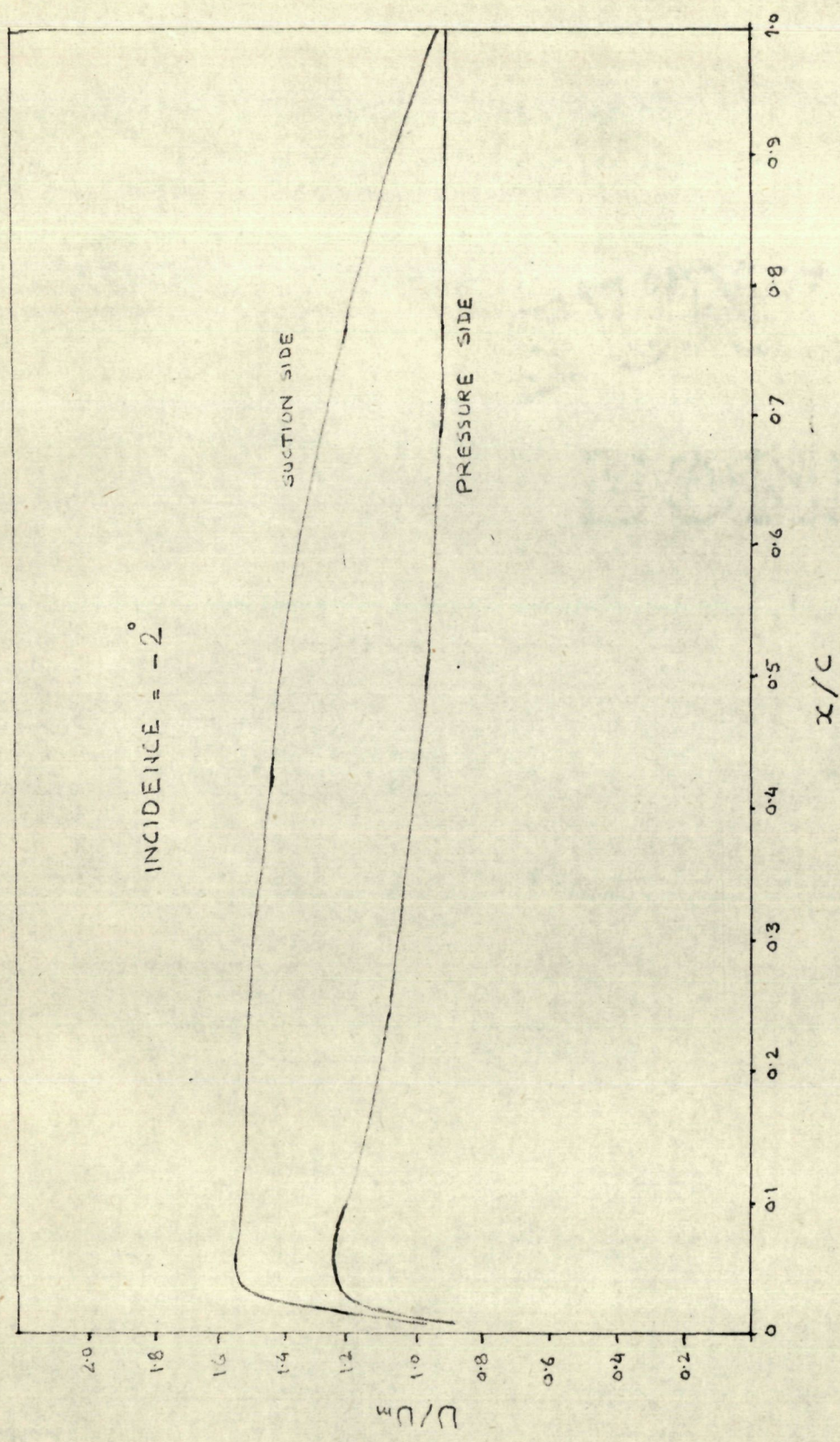


FIGURE - 1 (B)

INCIDENCE = 10°

SUCTION SIDE

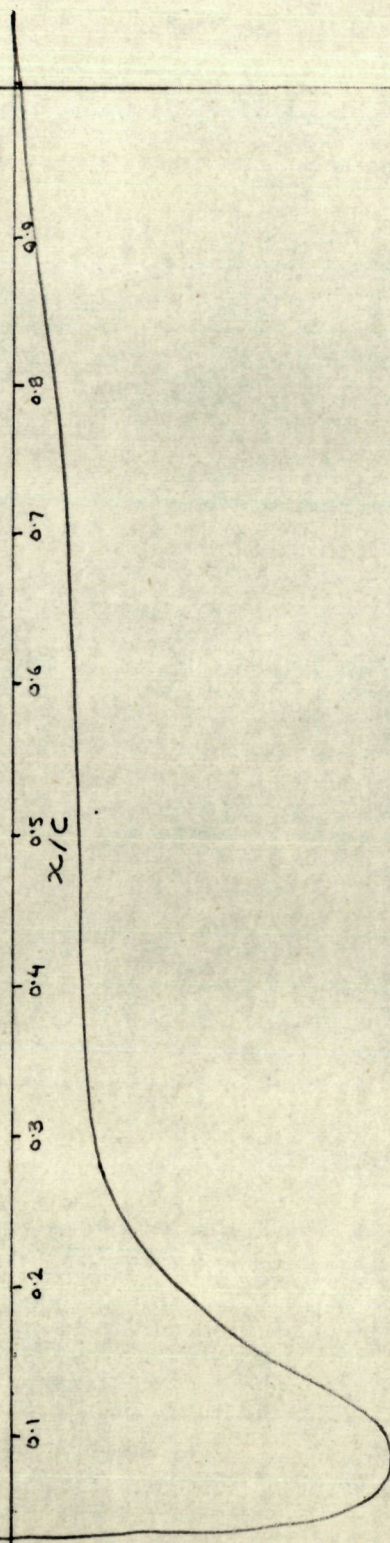


FIGURE - 2 (A)

INCIDENCE - 10°

PRESSURE SIDE.

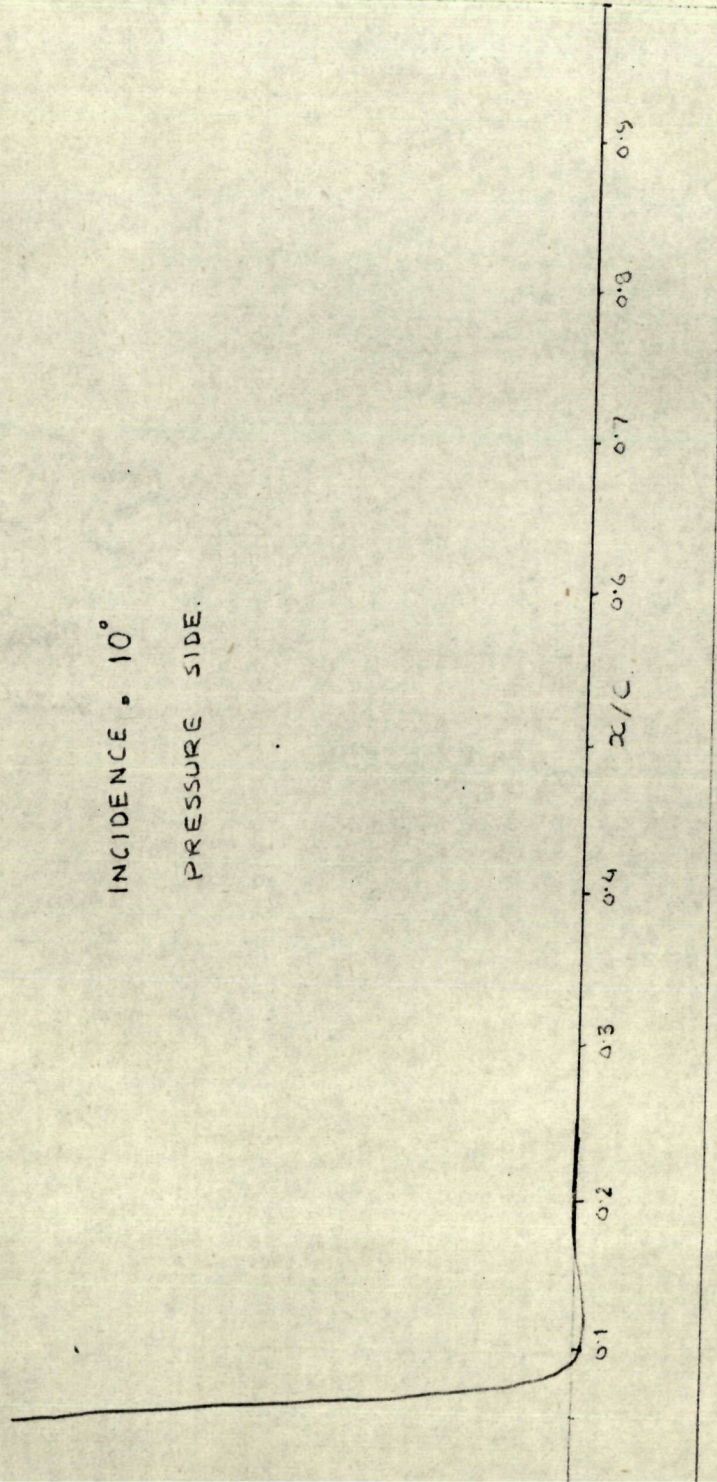


FIGURE - 2 (B)

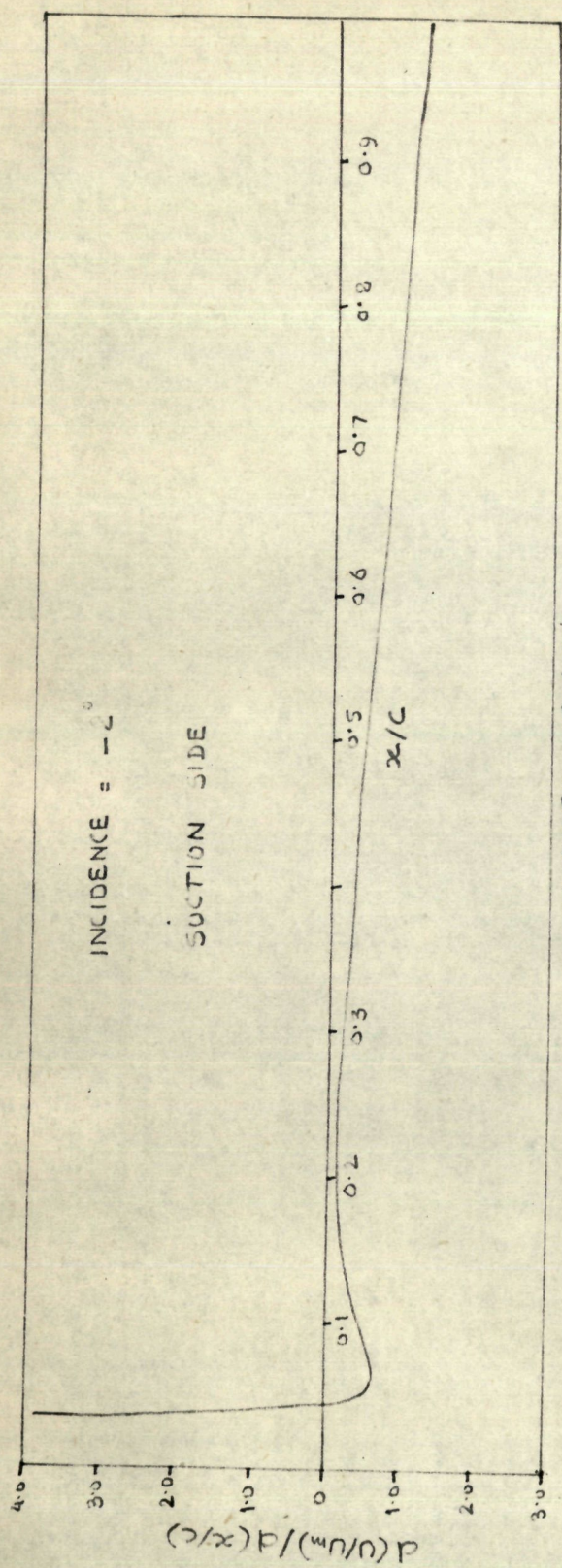


FIGURE - 2 (C)

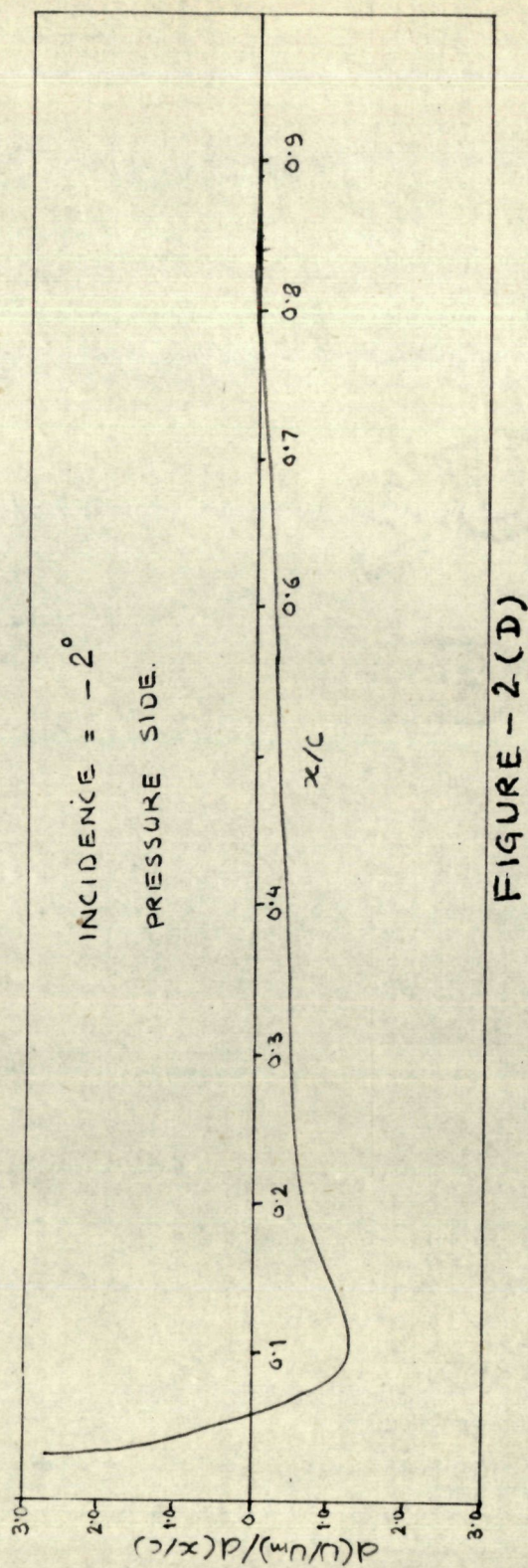


FIGURE - 2 (D)

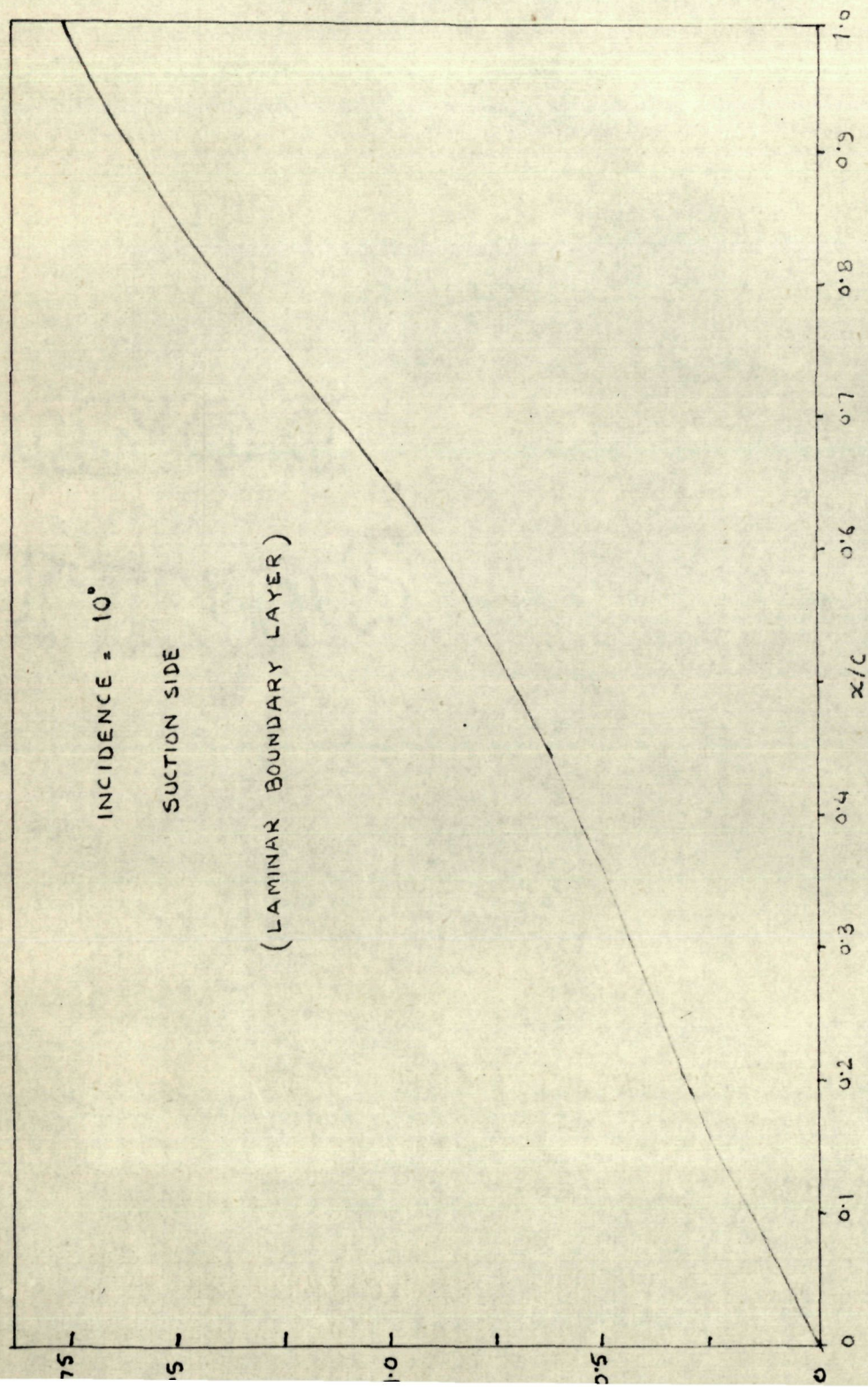


FIGURE - 3(A)

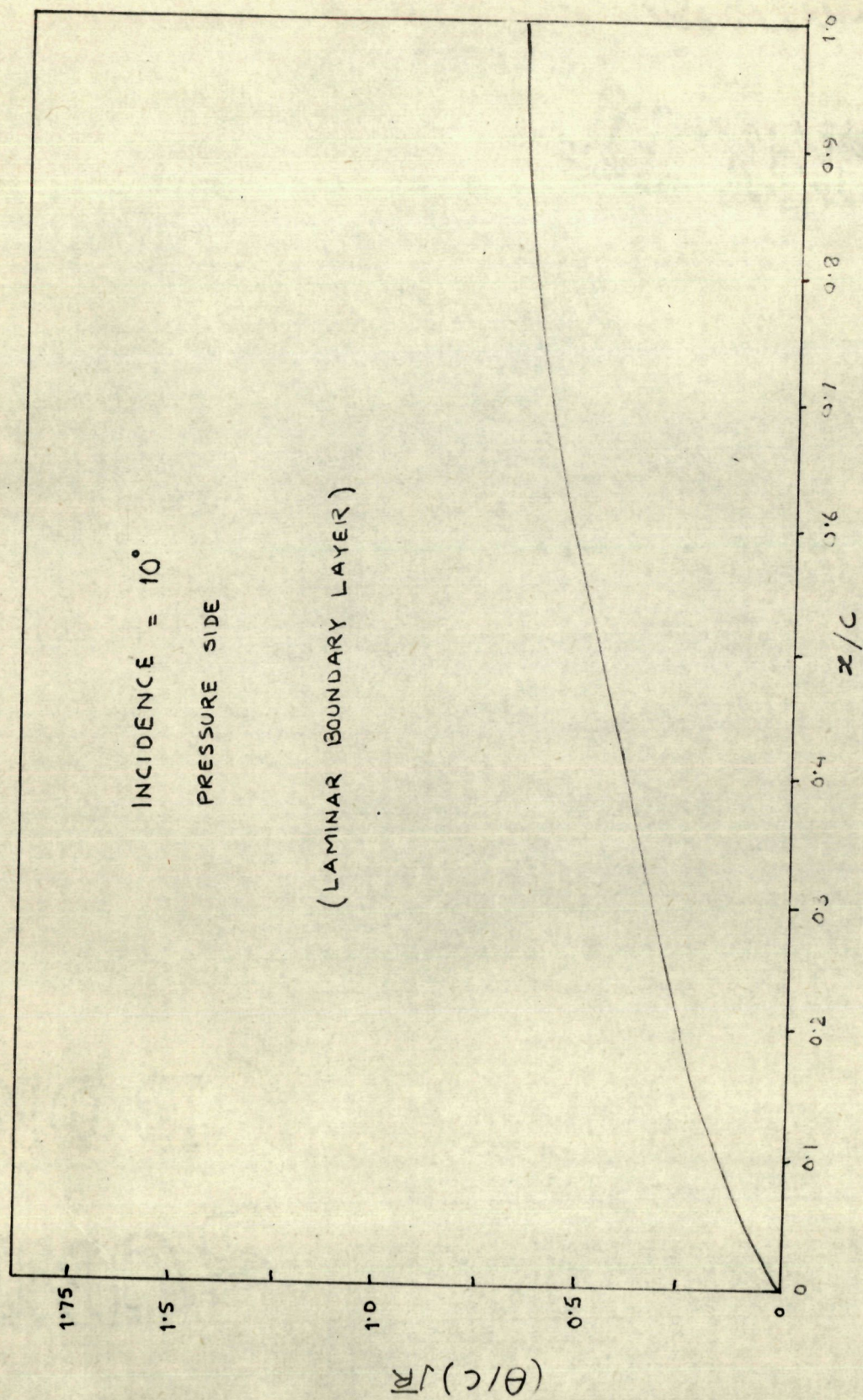


FIGURE- 3(B)

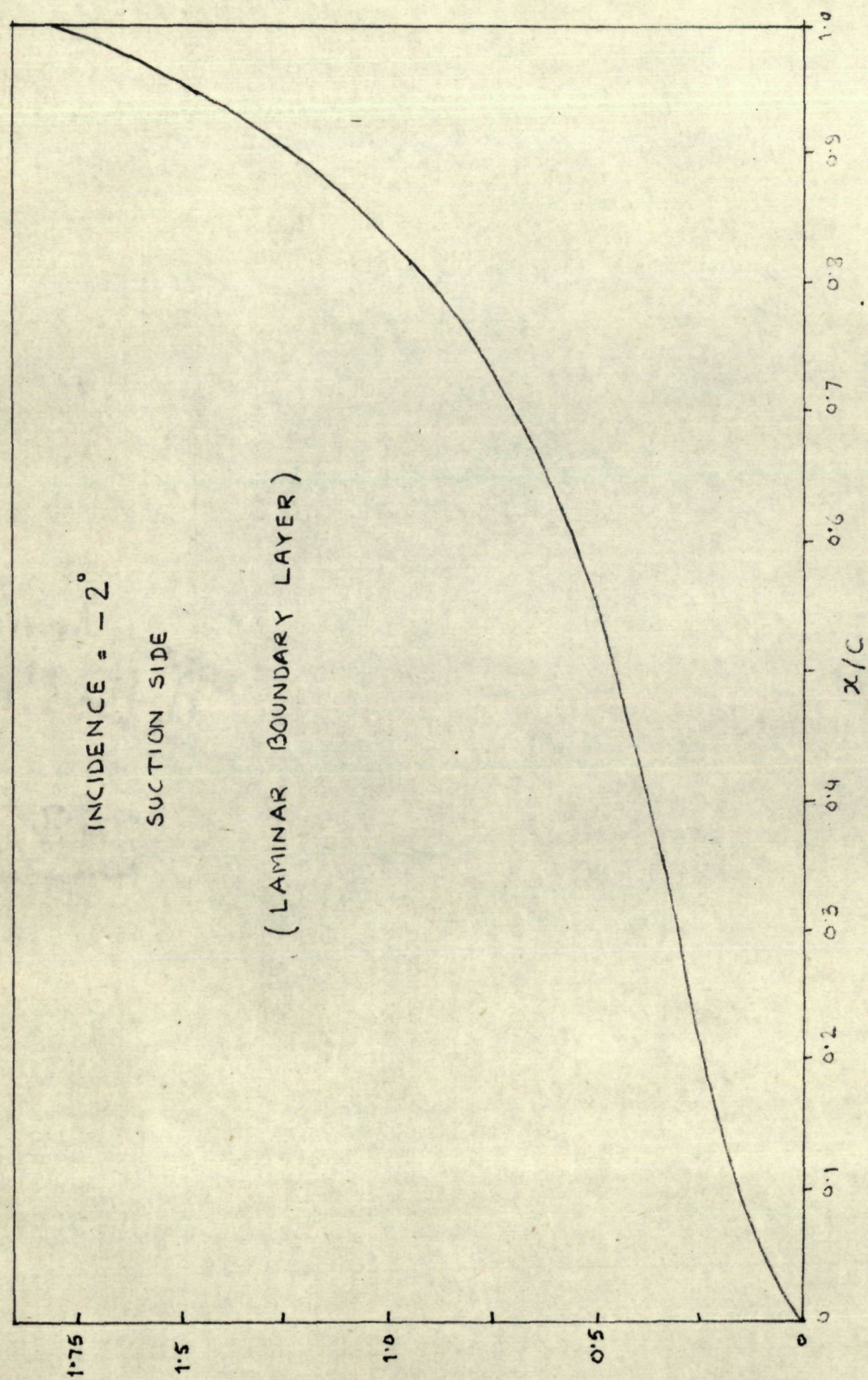


FIGURE - 3(C)

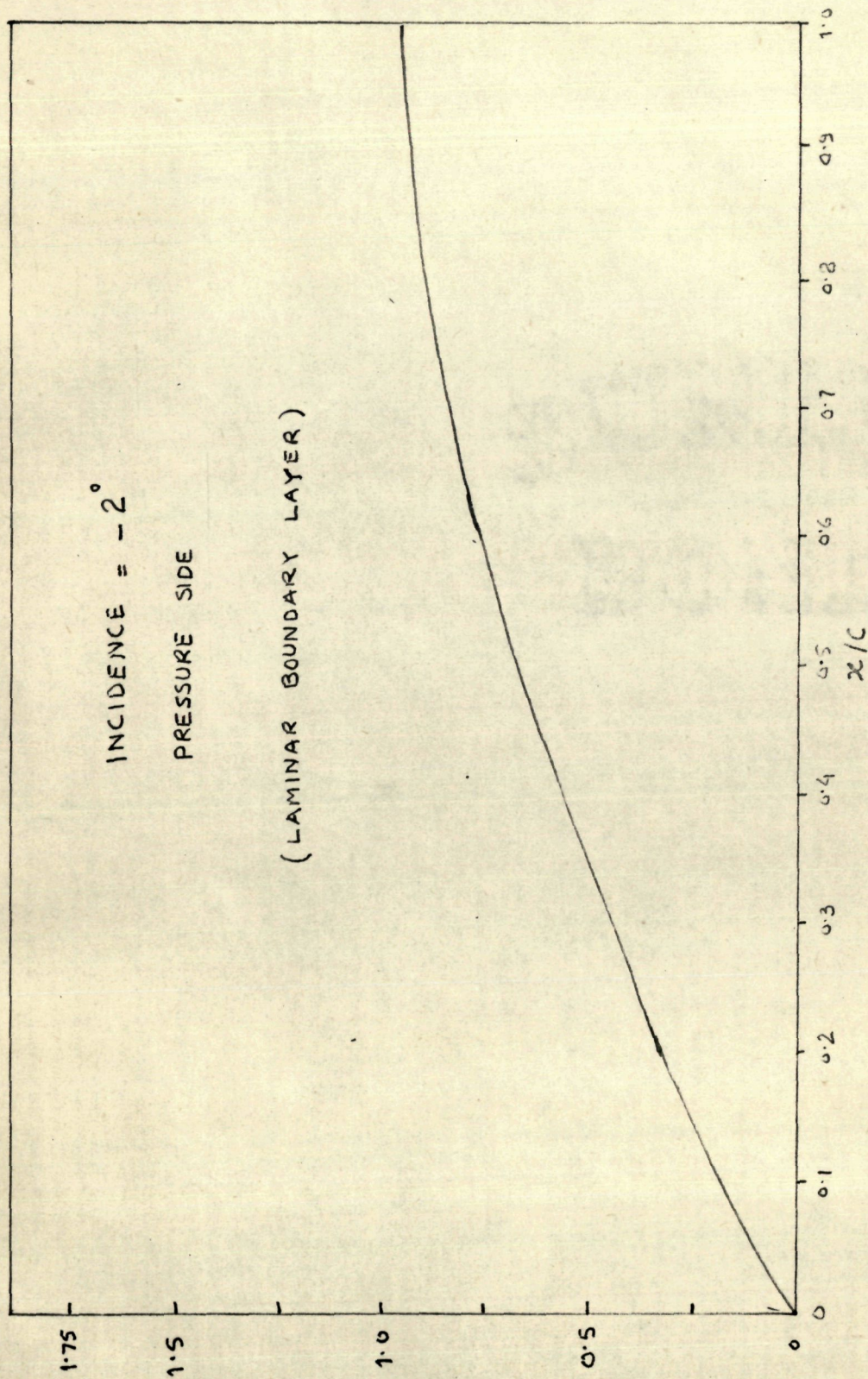


FIGURE - 3(D)

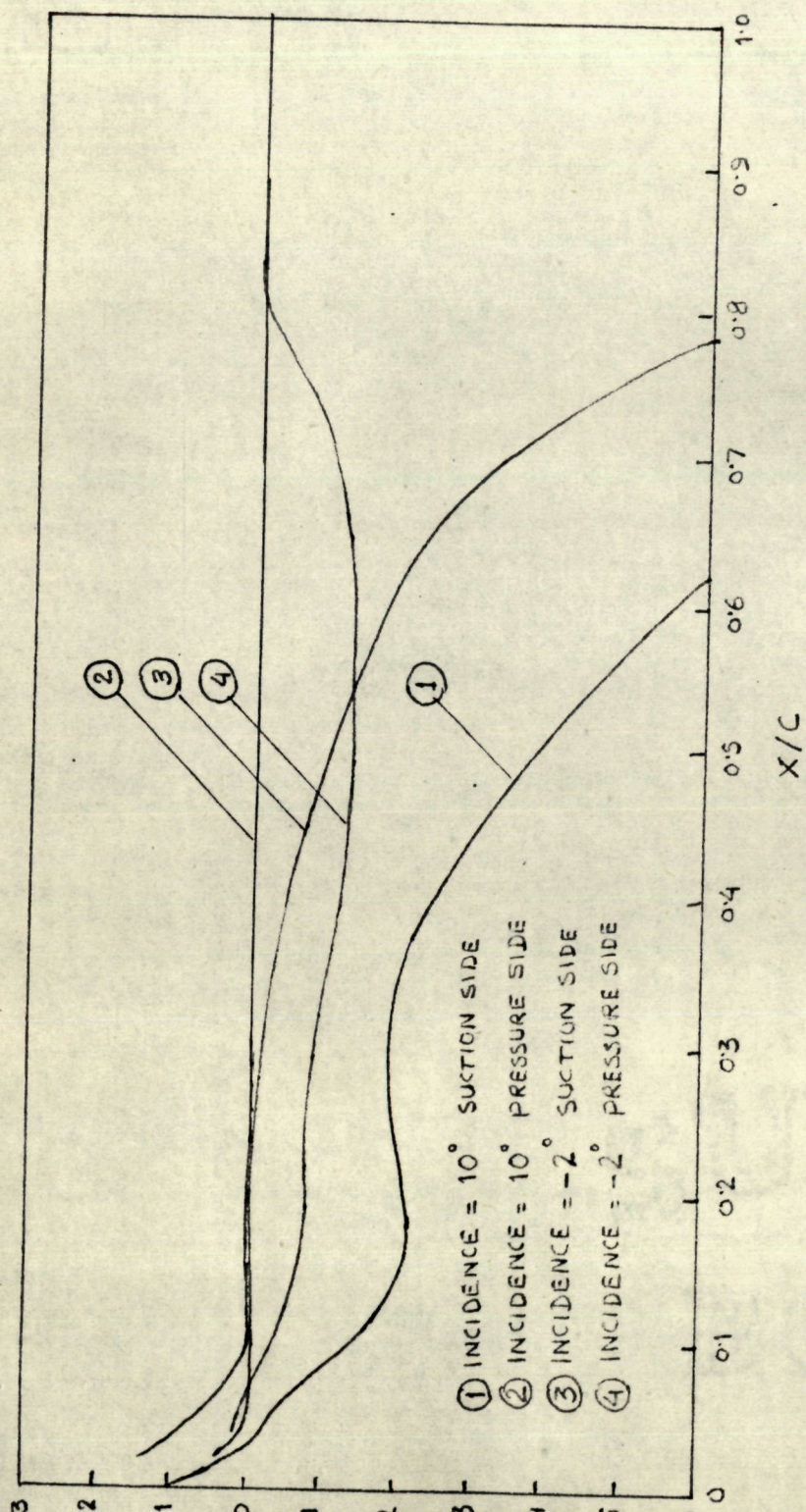


FIGURE - 4

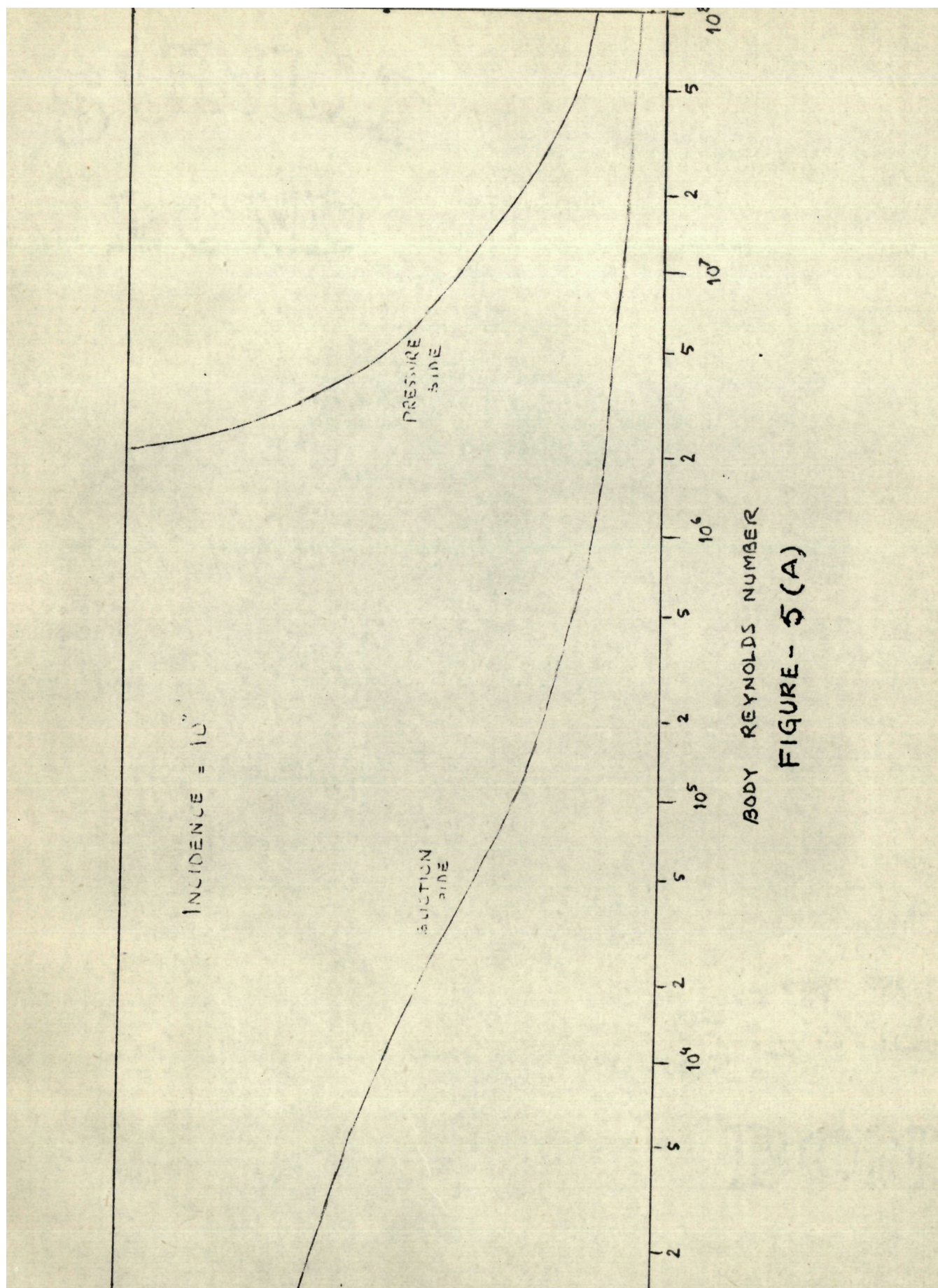


FIGURE - 5(A)

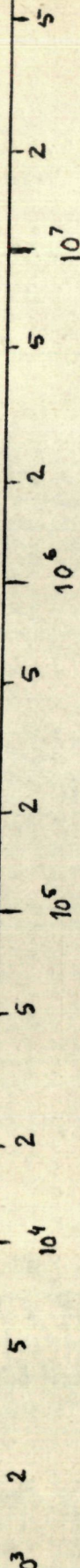
INCIDENCE = -2°

SUCTION
SIDE

PRESSURE
SIDE

BODY REYNOLDS NUMBER

FIGURE - 5(B)



INCIDENCE = 10°

SUCTION SIDE

$R = 10^7$

(TURBULENT BOUNDARY LAYER)

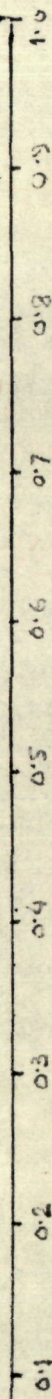
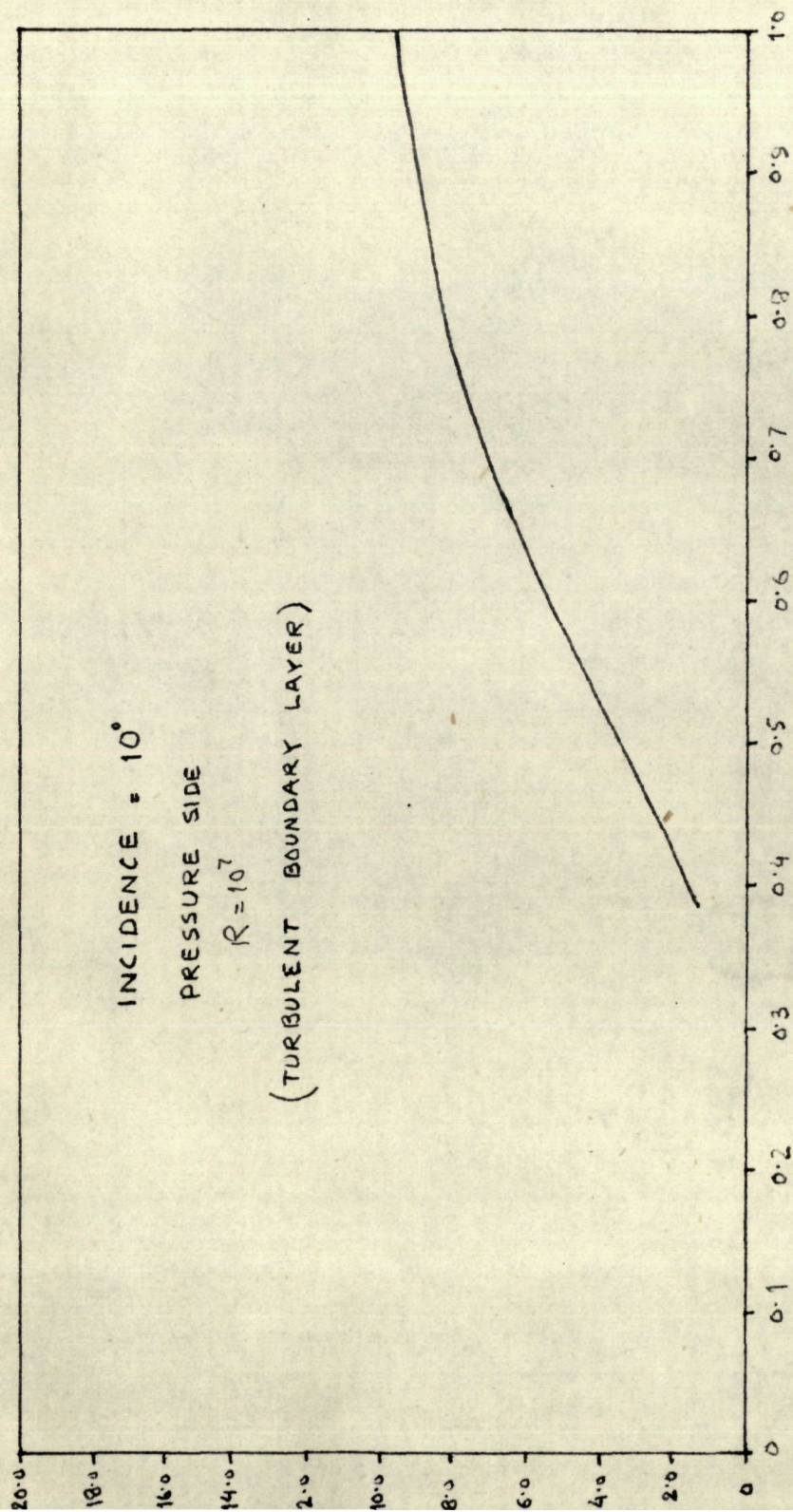
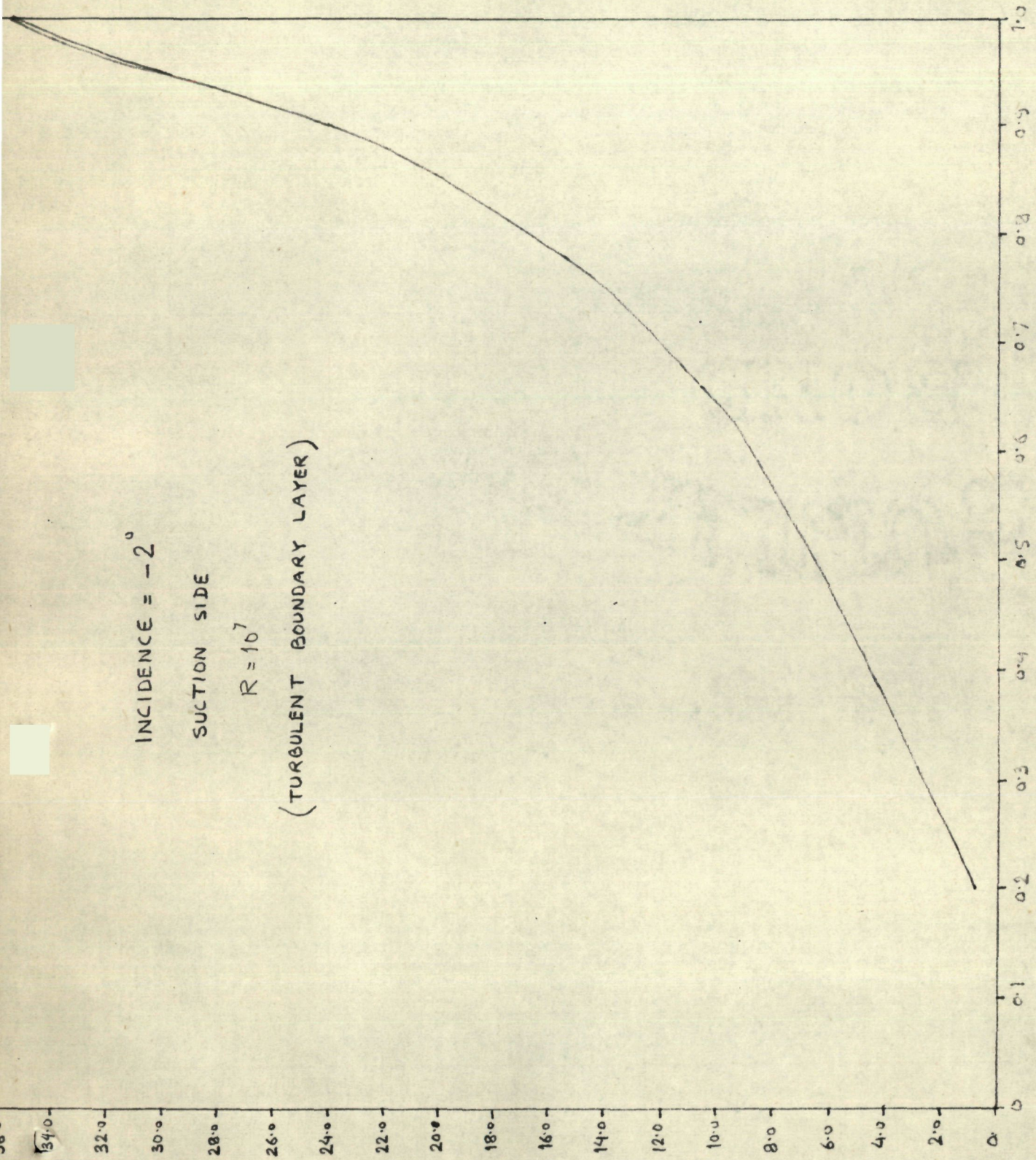


FIGURE - 6(A)



x/c
FIGURE - 6 (B)



x/c
FIGURE - 6(c)

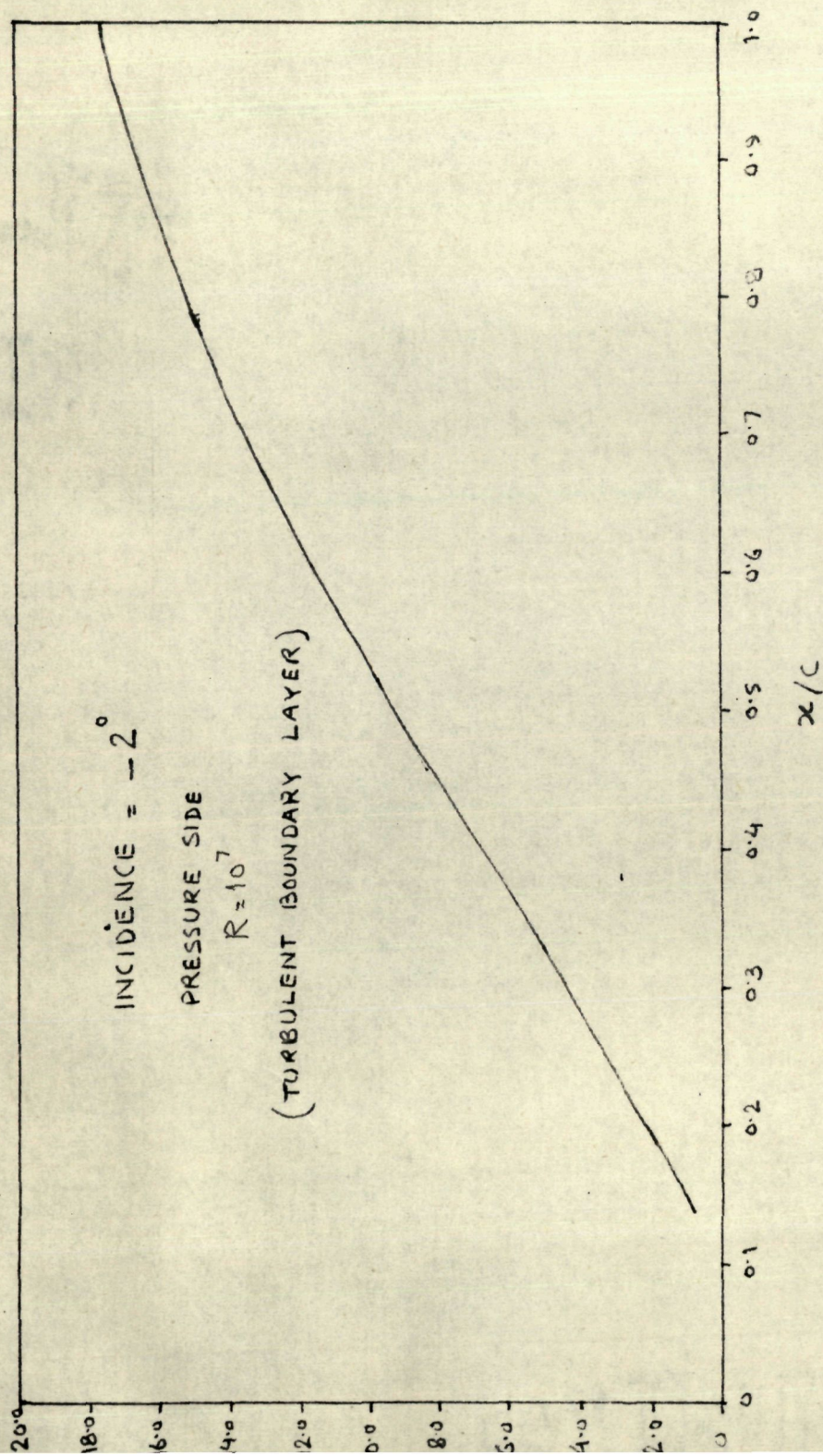


FIGURE - 6(D)

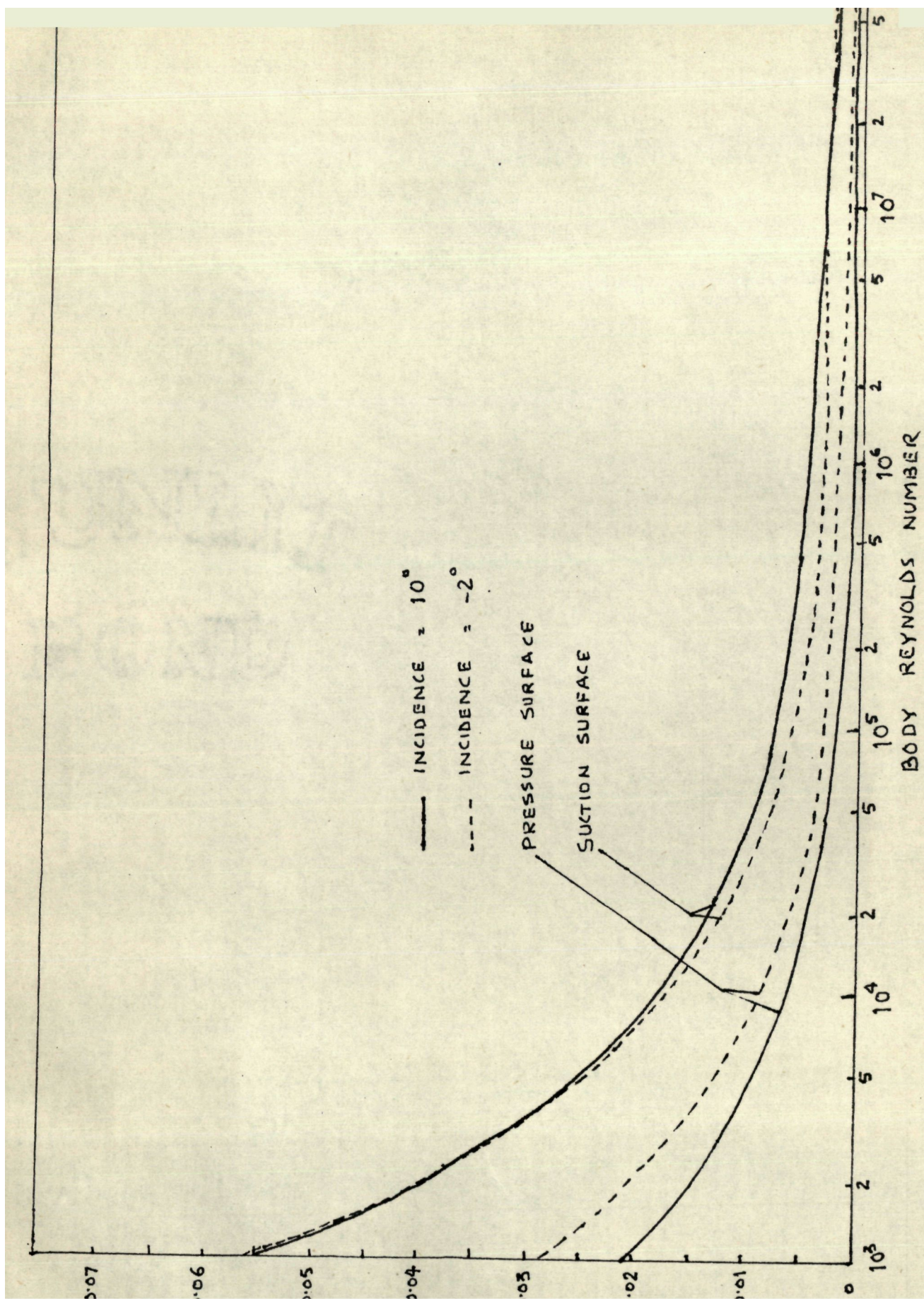


FIGURE-6(E)

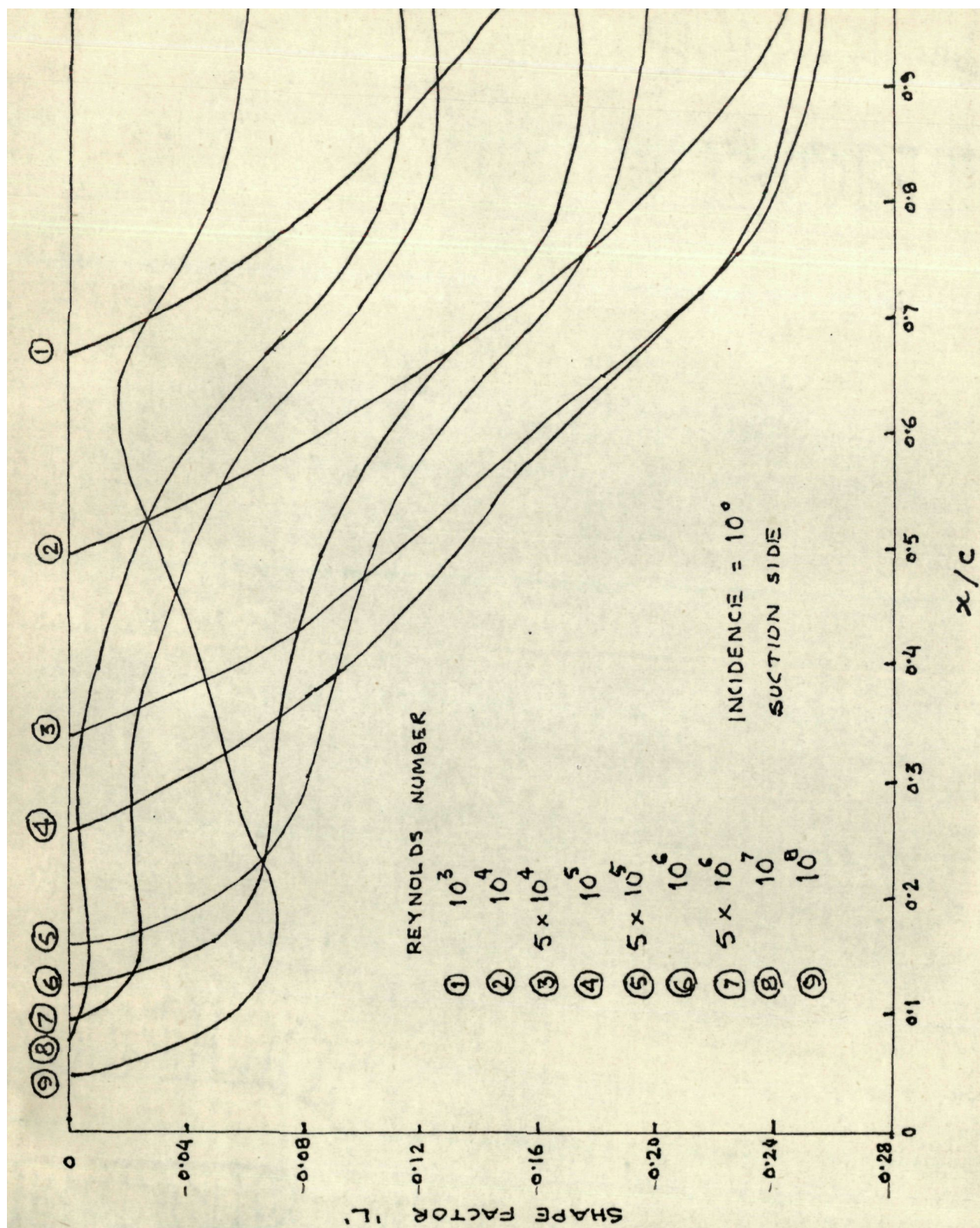


FIGURE - 7

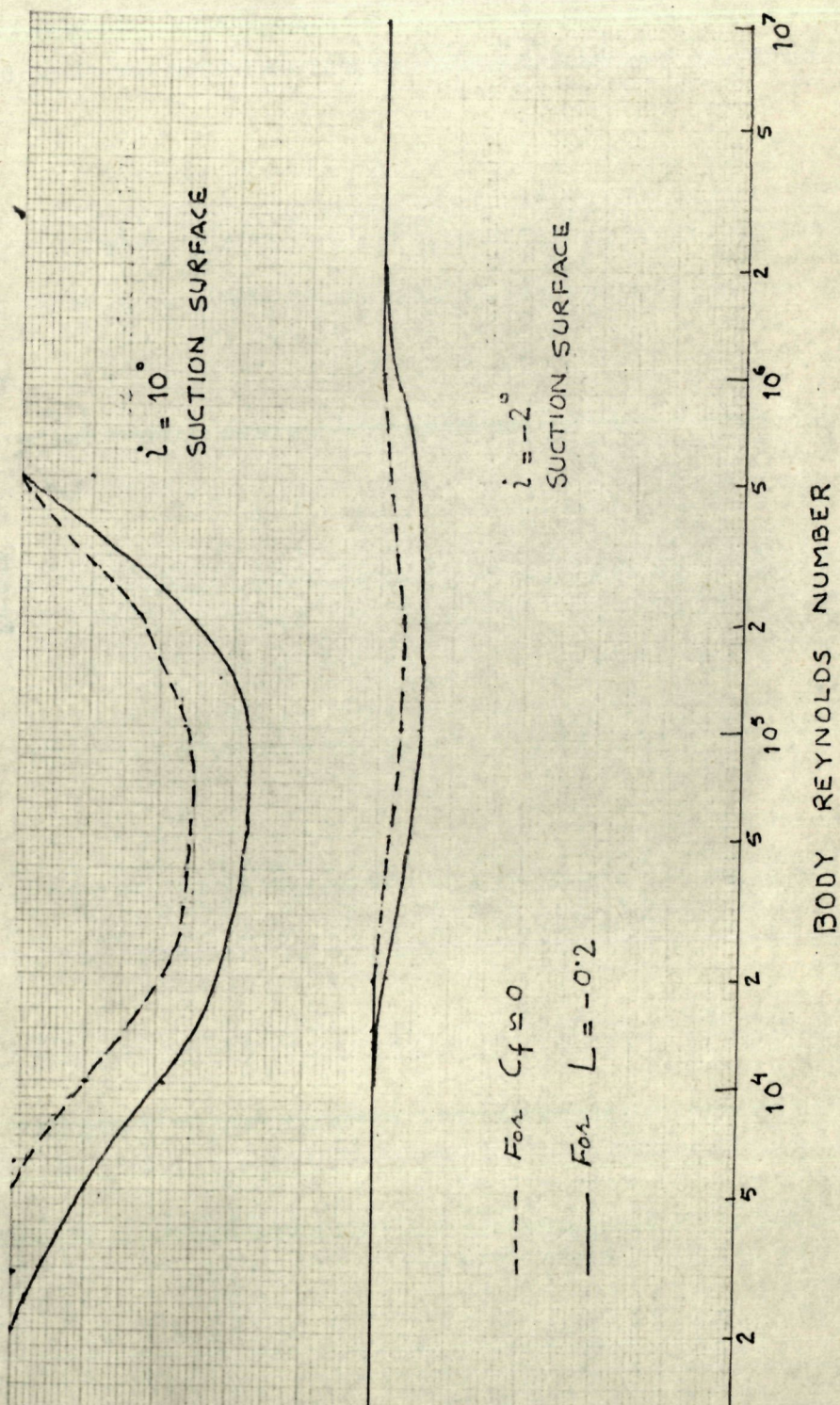


FIGURE - 8

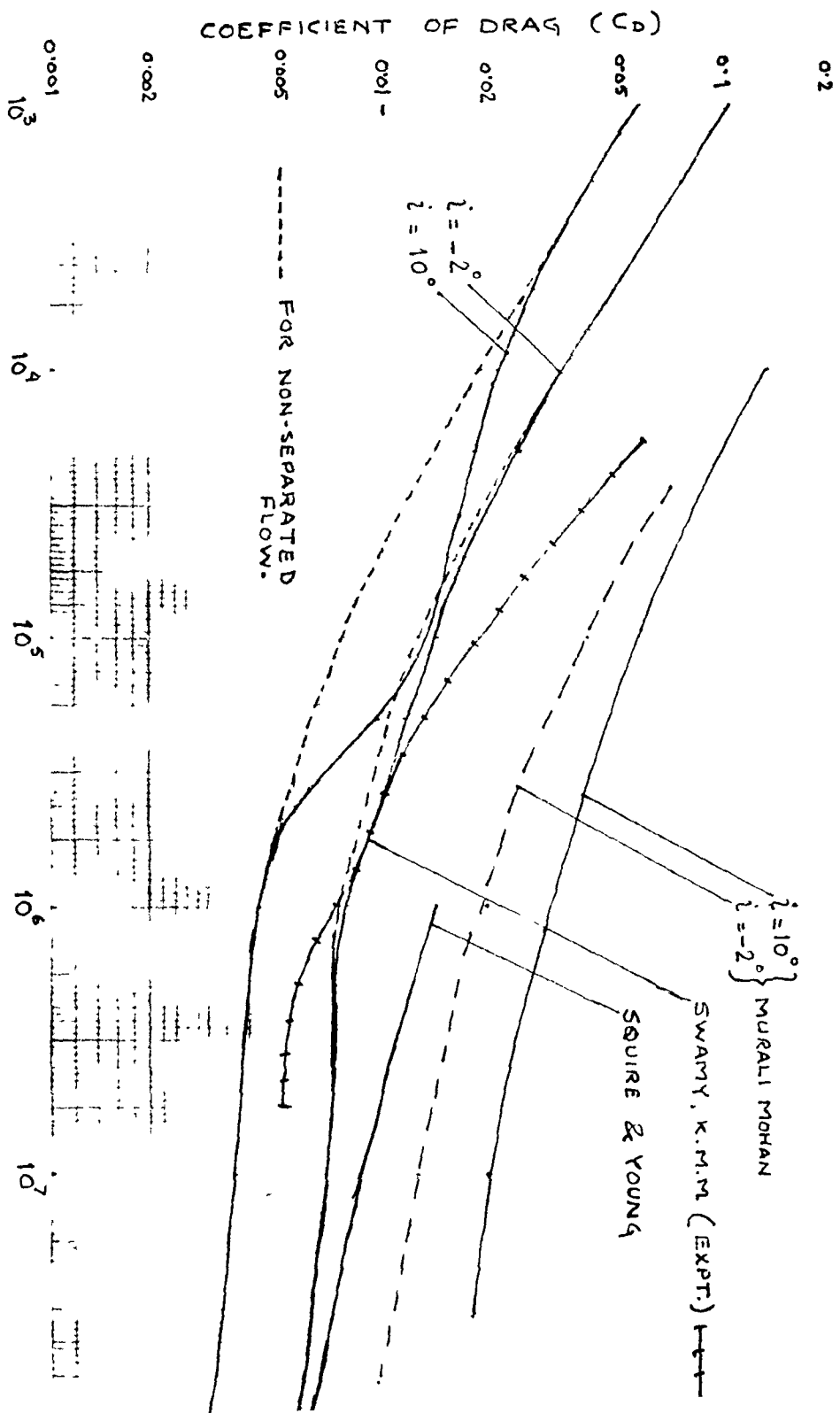


FIGURE - 9


```

DO 10 I=1,M
IF(XINT-X(I))5,1,2
1 YINT=Y(I)
GO TO 7
2 IF(I-M)4,3,7
3 I=M-1
GO TO 5
4 IF(XINT-X(I+1))5,1,1
5 YINT=(Y(I+1)-Y(I))/(X(I+1)-X(I))*(XINT-X(I))+Y(I)
GO TO 7
6 CONTINUE
7 RETURN
END
// FOR
SUBROUTINE SPCON(X,Y,M,C)
DIMENSION X(20),Y(20),D(20),P(20),E(20),C(4,20),A(20,3),B(20),Z(20)
N)
C B.C. SECOND DERIVATIVES AT THE ENDS POINTS ARE ZERO
C SOLUTION OF SIMULTANEOUS EQNS. BY ELIMINATION METHOD
MM=M-1
Z(1)=0.& Z(M)=0.
DO 2 K=1,MM& D(K)=X(K+1)-X(K)& P(K)=D(K)/6.
2 E(K)=(Y(K+1)-Y(K))/D(K)
DO 3 K=2,MM&3 B(K)=E(K)-E(K-1)
A(2,2)=P(2)/(2.*(P(1)+P(2)))& B(2)=B(2)/(2.*(P(1)+P(2)))
A(2,3)=0.
DO 4 K=3,MM& A(K,2)=2.*(P(K-1)+P(K))-P(K-1)*A(K-1,3)
B(K)=B(K)-P(K-1)*B(K-1)& A(K,3)=P(K)/A(K,2)
4 B(K)=B(K)/A(K,2)& Z(MM)=B(MM)
MN=M-2& DO 6 I=2,MN& K=M-I
6 Z(K)=B(K)-A(K,3)*Z(K+1)
DO 7 K=1,MM& Q=1./(6.*D(K))& C(1,K)=Z(K)*Q
C(2,K)=Z(K+1)*Q& C(3,K)=Y(K)/D(K)-Z(K)*P(K)
C(4,K)=Y(K+1)/D(K)-Z(K+1)*P(K)&7 CONTINUE& RETURN
END
// FOR
SUBROUTINE SPLIN(X,Y,M,C,XINT,YINT,DY)
DIMENSION X(20),Y(20),C(4,20)
C CUBIC SPLINE IS USED
IF(XINT)7,1,2& 1 YINT=Y(1)
DY= (3.*C(1,1)*(X(2)-XINT)**2)+(3.*C(2,1)*(XINT-X(1))**2)-C(3,1)+C
N(4,1)
RETURN
2 K=1& 3 IF(XINT-X(K+1))6,4,5& 4 YINT=Y(K+1)
DY=-(3.*C(1,K)*(X(K+1)-XINT)**2)+(3.*C(2,K)*(XINT-X(K))**2) C(3,K)
N+C(4,K)
RETURN
5 K=K+1& IF(M K)7,7,3& 5 YINT=(X(K+1)-XINT)*(C(1,K)+(X(K+1)-
NXINT)**2+C(3,K))+(XINT-X(K))*(C(2,K)*(XINT-X(K))**2+C(4,K))
DY= (3.*C(1,K)*(X(K+1)-XINT)**2)+(3.*C(2,K)*(XINT-X(K))**2) C(3,K)
N+C(4,K)
RETURN& 7 WRITE(5,101)
101 FORMAT(20X,'OUT OF RANGE FOR INTERPOLATION')
CALL EXIT
END
// FOR
DIMENSION XCSS(20),XCSP(20)

```



```

M457,.0405,.0337,.0254,.016,.0106,0./
DATA YY/3.1,2.4,2.0,1.8,1.6,1.5,1.4,1.35,1.3/
DATA XX/-0.2,-0.18,-0.16,-0.13,-0.085,0.05,0.,0.05,0.1/
DATA AA/.5,.292893219,1.70710678,.1666666667/
DATA BB/2.,1.,1.,2./
DATA CC/.5,.292893219,1.70710678,.5/
MM=9
NA=17
N=20
AN=5.%      AM=4.%      A=0.0076
SC=0.75
STEP=0.005
ALT=0.
PI=4.*ATAN(1.0)
PI1=PI/180.
NXC=1./STEP
NXC=NXC+1
AL1=PI1*62.%      AL2=PI1*29.75%      ALM=PI1*50.8
READ(8,108)(R(J),J=1,16)
READ(8,100)(X(J),J=1,N)
READ(8,100)(Y(J),J=1,N)
DO 1 I=1,N%1      X(I)=X(I)/1.016
CALL SPCON(XDA,YDA,NA,CA)
WRITE(5,106)
DO 38 L=1,4
WRITE(5,101)
CALL SPCON(X,Y,N,C)
UU(1)=0
SUM=0
DO 9 I=2,NXC
IF(L 2)7,2,4
2 IF(I 82)7,7,3
3 UU(I)=UU(82)
GO TO 8
4 IF(L 4)7,5,39
5 IF(I 156)7,7,6
6 UU(I)=UU(156)
GO TO 8
7 XC=(I-2)*STEP
CALL SPLIN(X,Y,N,C,XC,CP,DY)
UU(I)=COS(ALM)/COS(AL1)*SQRT(1.-CP)

```

```

C-----
C LAMINAR BOUNDARY LAYER CALCULATIONS BY THWAITES METHOD
8 SUM=SUM+(UU(I)**5+UU(I-1)**5)
  THER(I)=SQRT(0.45/(UU(I)**6)*(SUM-UU(2)**5)*STEP/2.)
9 CONTINUE

```

```

C-----
C DETERMINATION OF TRANSITION POINT USING MICHEL CRITERION
DO30 J=1,16
QS=0.
S=R(J)
AC=A/S**(1./6.)
DO 12 I=2,NXC
XC=(I-2)*STEP
THE=THER(I)/SQRT(R(J))
RX(I)=2.9*(UU(I)*XC*R(J))**0.4

```



```

15      II=I%          THET=THE(I)/SQRT(R(J))
      UUT=UU(I)
16      CONTINUE
C -----
C      TURBULENT BOUNDARY LAYER CALCULATIONS BY TRUCKENBRODT METHOD
      C1=(THET*UUT**((3.*AN+3.)/(AN+1.)))*((AN+1.)/AN)
      SUM=0.0          SB=0.
      AX=0.0          AZ=0.
      DO 25 I=II,NXC
      IF(I-II)17,17,18
17      GO TO 19
18      SUM=SUM+(UU(I-1)**(3.+2./AN)+UU(I)**(3.+2./AN))
19      CONTINUE
      THE=(C1+A*SJM*STEP/2.0/S**((1./AN)))*((AN/(AN+1.))/UU(I)**((3.*AN+3.
B)/(AN+1.))
      RTHE(I)=UU(I)*THE*S
      XI(I)=(THE*UU(I)**((3.*AN+3.)/(AN+1.)))*((AN* ((AN+1.)/AN))
      B(I)=0.07*ALOG(RTHE(I))/2.3 0.23
      IF(I-II)24,24,20
20      CONTINUE
      ZZ=(THE*UU(I)**3)**(7./6.)
      DO 21 ITER=1,4
      AY=(B(I)-ALOG(UU(I)/UUT))*4.*ZZ**3*AC*UU(I)**(10./3.)
      HK=(AY-BB(ITER)*AZ)*AA(ITER)
      AZ=AZ+3*HK-CC(ITER)*AY
      AX=AX+HK*STEP
21      CONTINUE
      AL=ALOG(UU(I)/UUT)+AX/XI(I)
      CALL INTPL(XX,YY,MM,AL,H)
      CF=0.246/10.0**((0.678*H)/RTHE(I)**0.268
      IF(QS)24,22,24
22      IF(CF-0.0001)39,39,36
C 22      IF(AL+0.20)39,39,36
23      XINT=(I-2)*STEP
      CALL SPLIN(XDA,YDA,NA,CA,XINT,YINT,DY)
      QS=YINT*((UU(I)/UU(202))**2-.9)/2.
24      CONTINUE
25      CONTINUE
26      IF(L-2)28,29,27
27      IF(L-4)28,29,39
28      THS(J)=THE
      TH(J)=QS
      XCSS(J)=XINT
      XCTS(J)=XC
      GO TO 30
29      THP(J)=THE
      THH(J)=QS
      XCSP(J)=XINT
      XCTP(J)=XC
30      CONTINUE
      IF(L-2)34,32,31
31      IF(L-4)37,32,39
32      CONTINUE
      DO 33 J=1,16
      HH=(THS(J)+THP(J)+TH(J)+THH(J))/(SC*COS(AL2))
      CD=2.*SC*HH*(COS(ALM))**3/(COS(AL2))**2

```



```

READ(8,100)(Y(J),J=1,N)
DO 35 I=1,N&35      X(I)=X(I)/0.984
GO TO 38

```

```

36  N=20
    READ(8,100)(X(J),J=1,N)
    READ(8,100)(Y(J),J=1,N)
    WRITE(5,107)
    AL1=PI1*50.
    AL2=PI1*26.5
    ALM=PI1*40.2
    GO TO 38

```

```

37  READ(8,100)(X(J),J=1,N)
    READ(8,100)(Y(J),J=1,N)

```

```

38  CONTINUE

```

```

39  CALL EXIT

```

```

100 FORMAT(8F10.3)

```

```

101 FORMAT(20X,'-----')

```

```

106 FORMAT(/20X,' I N C I D E N C E = 10 D E G ')

```

```

107 FORMAT(/20X,' I N C I D E N C E = -2 D E G ')

```

```

108 FORMAT(8E10.3)

```

```

109 FORMAT(1X,E7.1,4F7.3,4E11.3,2E12.4)

```

END

	0.100E 04	0.200E 04	0.500E 04	0.100E 05	0.200E 05	0.500E 05	0.100E 06	0.200E 06
0.100E 05	0.100E 05	0.200E 07	0.500E 07	0.100E 07	0.200E 08	0.500E 08	0.100E 08	0.200E 08
0.	0.026	0.041	0.045	0.066	0.116	0.166	0.216	
0.266	0.316	0.366	0.416	0.666	0.716	0.766	0.816	
0.866	0.916	0.966	1.016					
1.	-1.74	-1.78	-1.74	-1.57	-1.05	-0.81	-0.65	
-0.5025	-0.42	-0.325	-0.24	0.115	0.19	0.23	0.28	
0.31	0.325	0.35	0.36					
0.	0.009	0.034	0.059	0.084	0.134	0.184	0.234	
0.384	0.484	0.534	0.584	0.734	0.784	0.834	0.884	
0.934	0.984							
1.	0.88	0.65	0.5	0.47	0.475	0.475	0.47	
0.475	0.485	0.505	0.51	0.51	0.505	0.49	0.475	
0.45	0.425							
0.0	0.025	0.05	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.25	0.3	
0.4	0.5	0.55	0.6	0.65	0.7	0.75	0.8	
0.85	0.9	0.95	1.0					
1.0	-0.45	-0.7	-0.66	-0.64	-0.625	-0.62	-0.59	
-0.5	-0.42	-0.36	-0.31	-0.235	-0.1505	-0.08	0.01	
0.1	0.19	0.29	0.365					
0.0	0.016	0.0375	0.0505	0.1167	0.15	0.2	0.25	
0.3	0.35	0.45	0.5	0.55	0.65	0.7	0.8	
0.85	0.9	0.95	1.0					
1.0	0.2	-0.08	0.1	0.0	0.05	0.125	0.175	
0.215	0.25	0.32	0.34	0.36	0.39	0.4	0.405	
0.4	0.39	0.37	0.34					